

CATERING MANAGEMENT

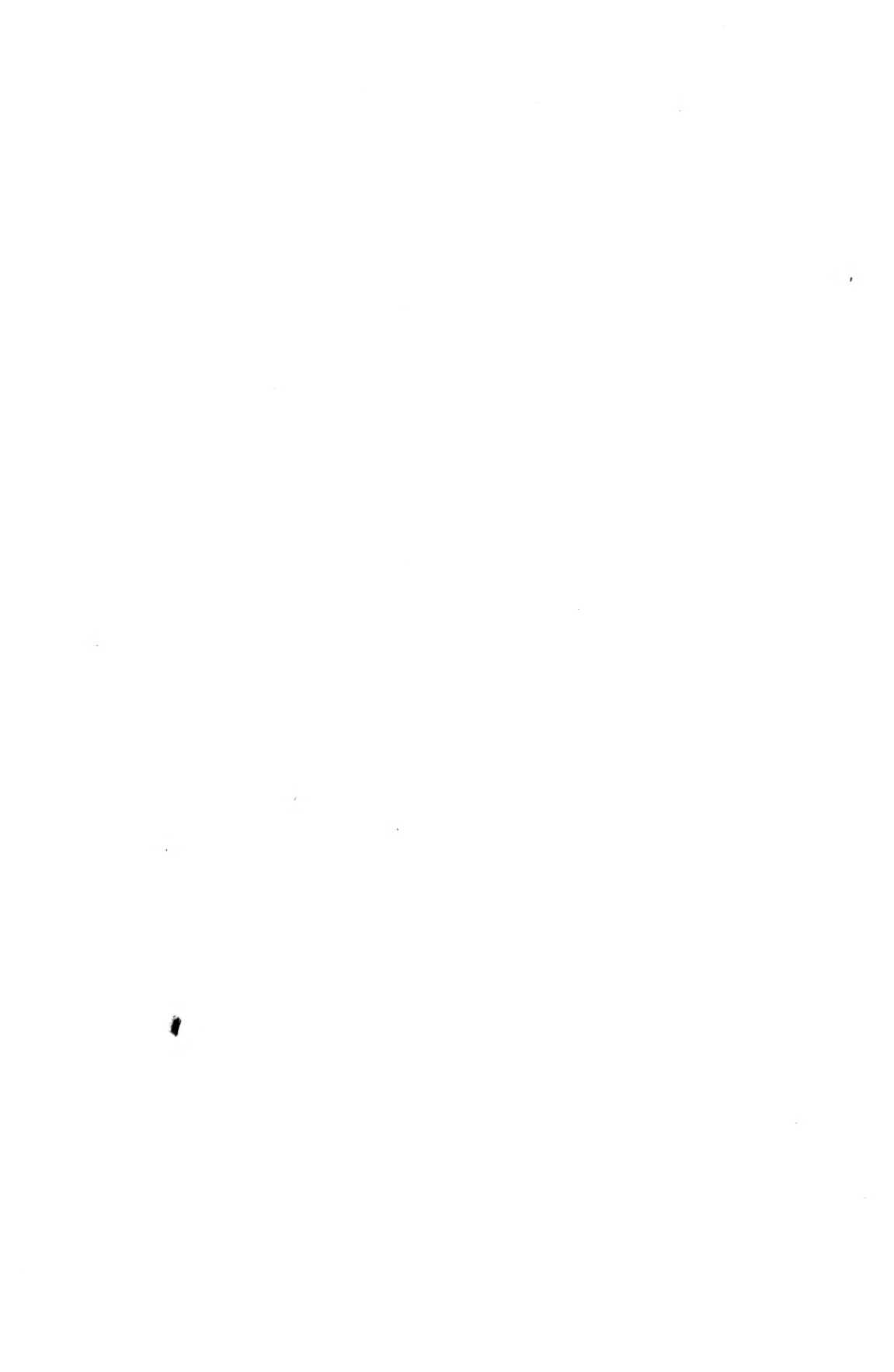


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THE
WAVERLEY BOOK CO., Ltd.
London, 96 Farringdon St.

CATERING MANAGEMENT





FLORAL TABLE DECORATION.
A scheme carried out with Sweet Peas.

A Comprehensive Guide to the Successful
Management of Hotel, Restaurant, Boarding
House, Popular Café, Tea Rooms, and every
other branch of Catering, including a Section
on the Law and the Caterer

Written by Experts and Authorities on every branch
of the Subject

*Profusely Illustrated with Practical Photographs, Plans,
Diagrams and Full-Page Colour Plates*



VOLUME II

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PART I

VEGETARIAN CATERING

CHAPTER I

VEGETARIAN RESTAURANTS

VARIOUS causes are giving constantly increasing importance to vegetarian catering. To begin with, the number of convinced and practising adherents belonging to various schools of food reform grows year by year. Added to these are a considerably larger number who, for reasons of health or economy, give heed to the teachings of medical men and either eat more vegetables and fruit or discard more or less thoroughly a meat diet. It should be stated that the word "vegetarian" came into general use soon after the inauguration of the Vegetarian Society at Ramsgate in the year 1847. This society defines vegetarianism (V.E.M.) as follows: "That is, the practice of living on the products of the vegetable kingdom with or without the addition of eggs and of milk and its products (butter and cheese), to the exclusion of fish, flesh, and fowl."

The Vegetarian Society has always had eminent scholars on its committee, and it is generally thought that they took the Latin root "vegetus"—which, broadly translated, means, vital, vigorous, healthful, wholesome—as the basis of the word vegetarian. It will be seen by these definitions that a generally accepted idea of a vegetarian as one who lives on vegetables, is not justified.

Vegetarianism does, however, imply an abstention from "flesh foods," even among those who admit milk and milk fats (butter and cream), and those who are still less strict and eat eggs. But should these be eliminated as well as meat, plenty of room is left for variety, as we find, by the use of such terms as "fruitarian," "nut food," "proteid foods," and so on. From the business point of view it is, of course, to restrict the basis of food supply to too narrow a limit.

As regards the public for vegetarian catering it is to be remembered that several vigorous societies, such as the Vegetarian Society of Manchester, the Vegetarian Association of London, the National Food Reform Association, and branches scattered up and down the country, are propagating their ideas, so that fresh recruits flow in, and meanwhile the circle of those who are only partly vegetarians widens.

An idea of the movement and the opportunities it offers will be obtained from a glance at what has already been done in this branch of catering.

London Vegetarian Restaurants

Vegetarian restaurants for many years past have formed an important part of the catering establishments of London. At the present time the existing restaurants provide meals for about 10,000 people daily. Eight of them are run on first class-lines, where the charge for a savoury dish with one or two vegetables varies from 5d. to 1s. 9d. The remaining restaurants provide a popular three course dinner for sixpence. The first vegetarian restaurant, the Alpha, was opened by Dr. Nichols at 23, Oxford Street. It existed for a number of years, but never achieved any great success. The premises were too cramped and not adapted to compete with the modern restaurant.

The Glendenning restaurants were started by the late Mr. Andrew Glendenning in the year 1881, when he opened The Apple Tree, 34, London Wall. A few years later the upper part of 35, Poultry was taken, and the Mansion House restaurant opened. More recently 278, High Holborn, which has been run as "The Porridge Bowl," was taken over and run under their management. The Glendenning restaurants cater for both classes of customers. They supply first-class meals on the lower floors, and sixpenny dinners upstairs.

Mr. Robert Reid opened the Garden Restaurant in the Minories in 1880, the Garden Restaurant, Jewin Street, E.C., and the Garden Restaurant, Water Lane.

One of the best known vegetarian restaurants in London is the St. George's House, 37, St. Martin's Lane, W.C., originally called "The Orange Grove." Owing to its favourable position and excellent management, it has been a great success. Customers during the rush hour have to wait for a seat, also after matinées the place quite fills up.

Another very popular restaurant is the Ceres in Newgate Street, which was opened many years ago near Amen Corner and transferred to the present premises in 1908.

These popular-priced restaurants are a great boon to thousands of workers, and at some of them it is not an uncommon experience to find a line of people formed up waiting to enter, like people do when going to a popular play.

These establishments provide a dinner of three courses for a sum in the neighbourhood of sixpence, and it is quite wonderful what a variety of dishes they offer for this modest sum. As a matter of fact quite a large percentage of the patrons manage to get a well-balanced meal for the expenditure of 4d. For instance a popular dish is lentil sausage, with tomato soup, followed by wholemeal pudding as a second course. This makes quite a good combination and provides a satisfactory ration for the average city worker. Detailed menus are given later in this section.

A leading speciality has been the provision of coffee, prepared and served as in the leading Vienna restaurants, and a great feature is made of omelettes and other egg dishes.

The Food Reform Company was formed in 1902 and made a start in

premises that had been built over 200 years, at No. 4, Furnival Street, Holborn. Success attended this company from the first, and no fewer than three extensions were made to cope with the increase of trade. In 1910 His Majesty's Government acquired the premises for the extension of the Patent Office, and by good fortune the two adjoining sites No. 2-3, Furnival Street happened to be in the market, and were taken by the company on a building lease. Here they erected what they claim to be the largest vegetarian restaurant in the world. It consists of a fine Georgian building designed by Mr. C. Harrison Townsend, F.R.I.B.A., and two floors of the adjoining building give the total floor space of about 11,000 superficial feet.

The chief entrance is imposing and leads to a fine staircase lined with green tiles and oak. The kitchen is on the top floor of the building, and being light and airy is highly commended by the City authorities as one of the best within their jurisdiction. The plant consists of a large range with ovens, three modern three-tier steamers capable of steaming 5 cwt. potatoes and 350 cup puddings at one time, 5 nickel-lined steam pans for soup, etc., a cabinet oven, and many of the latest labour-saving appliances. Adjoining the kitchen is a fine scullery with tanks, for washing-up, a large electric lift, and a smaller hand lift, a vegetable store, and a store for cereals, dried fruits, etc.

The second floor consists of two ladies' dining-rooms, with a total seating accommodation for 150, where smaller portions are served at a lower charge. As many as 250 business girls avail themselves of the advantage of a vegetarian meal nearly every day. The directors are specially pleased with the success of this side of the business, as they feel it is a great step forward to introduce the humane system of diet and really nourishing food to so many young women.

The first floor consists of a handsome room 40 by 20 feet, with a fine oak fireplace and overmantel, and adjoining it, in the new building, is the special dining-room, with seating accommodation for 80, extending to the busy thoroughfare of Holborn; the equipment being generally better than that used in the other rooms. Several dishes are prepared for this room only, and many gladly pay the slightly higher charges for the sake of the greater comfort.

On the ground floor is a fine oak-panelled room called Furnival Hall, ventilated by the Glover-Lyon system. Just inside the entrance, the dining-room with fine Medmenham tiles is the most popular room in the house. The smoking-room and billiard-room in the basement are also much appreciated. Most of the rooms are let in the evenings during the winter for private dances, whist drives, lectures, etc., and several societies make the restaurant their headquarters.

To ensure efficient service, each floor has a fully-equipped serving room, and a staff of 50 workers are kept employed during the luncheon interval to cope with the requirements of the 1,000 customers who visit the restaurant daily.

The company has always acted on the principle of sharing its success

with the staff, and it pays by way of commission about £160 per annum, to all who have completed a year's service, gives a fortnight's holiday with wages, and adds a bonus of £1 towards their holiday expenses. The usual Christmas boxes are also given, and a staff social gathering is given early in every year.

Mr. W. B. Shearn in 1905 opened a very fine luncheon room over his fruit shop at 231-234, Tottenham Court Road, and although a speciality is made of fruit meals a considerable variety of cooked dishes is provided every day. The success that attended this venture was sufficient to warrant the fitting up of the second floor. Recently Mr. Shearn has opened a department for the supply of vegetarian cutlets and other dishes for people to take away for home consumption.

The Eustace Miles Company was formed in 1906 and started business at 40, Chandos Street, Charing Cross, to demonstrate practically the teachings of Mr. Eustace Miles.

Mr. Miles has always had an objection to the ordinary vegetarian restaurant, and has run this restaurant on somewhat distinctive lines. He objects to the word vegetarian and uses his own name and initials for several of his food preparations, etc.

After some experience he has evolved a special kind of proteid food which is said to be very nutritious, and by adding a due proportion of this to most of the dishes he claims to provide an effective substitute for a meat meal, but to ordinary vegetarians it may seem to be a departure from the simple natural foods that they advocate. Only the lower part of the building is devoted to the restaurant, the other rooms being used for meetings, lectures, etc. There is also a consulting room where people who desire advice on their health can obtain it from Mr. Miles.

The Home Restaurant was opened by two ladies in Friday Street. Great attention is paid to "conservative cooking" and to the provision of uncooked meals, salads, etc. The premises are not spacious, but the restaurant is much liked, and the ladies carry on a successful business.

The last restaurant to be opened on food reform lines was Blatch's Health Restaurant at 50, Cannon Street, E.C.

Mr. Blatch was for some years chef of the Eustace Miles Restaurant. The catering is carried out on somewhat similar lines to those of the establishment in Chandos Street. A speciality is made of foods that can be taken away for home consumption.

Vegetarian Restaurants in the Provinces

There are several vegetarian restaurants in the larger cities of England, Scotland, and Ireland. Manchester is usually considered to be the Mecca of vegetarianism, and it is therefore not surprising to find nine or ten vegetarian restaurants carrying on a successful business in that city. Smallmans is the best known firm, their principal restaurant in Deansgate is crowded with city men during the luncheon hour, and is also a favourite rendezvous for ladies at tea time. They have seven branches dotted about in the busier parts of the city. The company has always paid good dividends,

and by judicious extension has built up quite an important and lucrative business. The Clarion Café, Market Street, makes a speciality of vegetarian meals.

Liverpool has three restaurants, Chapmans in Eberle Street, and in Whitechapple, also Mr. Castle's restaurant in Dale Street. Bradford has three restaurants, the Beanstalk in John Street, in Charles Street, and the Vegetarian Café in Swain Street. Birmingham has two restaurants, the best known being Winter's Café in the City Arcades, where quite a large business is done both for luncheon and teas in the daintily fitted-up rooms, and the Pitman in Corporation Street does a good business and is used as a centre by the Birmingham Vegetarian Society.

In Nottingham Mr. Martin has carried on a very successful restaurant, the Savoy Café, Wheelers Gate, for many years past. Recently in conjunction with his brother, Mr. E. W. Martin, he has opened a very nice restaurant in Boar Lane, Leeds, which promises to be successful.

Newcastle-on-Tyne has a vegetarian restaurant run by Mr. Smith in Cloth Market.

Northampton has recently been supplied with a vegetarian lunch and tea-rooms in Sheep Street.

Mr. Goddard has been running the Café Vegetaria at Market Place, Leicester, with considerable success for some time past.

The Bolton Restaurant in Mealhouse Lane has been established for many years. The Sheffield Vegetarian Restaurant Co. run Ye Campo Café, Campo Lane, in a good position near the Cathedral and are meeting with success. In Cheltenham there is a small restaurant run in connection with the Health Food Stores, at 2, Clarence Street; to meet the increased business the restaurant has been recently enlarged by fitting up an additional room.

The restaurants named above are those that are better known, but others are carrying on business at: Brighton; Bristol; Eastbourne—Bobby and Co.; Halifax; Margate—Bobby and Co.; Southend-on-Sea, etc.

Scotland has not proved to be very good ground for vegetarian restaurants, although there are a considerable number of pledged vegetarians north of the Tweed. A number of vegetarian restaurants have been started, but closed up after a short time for want of sufficient patronage.

At the present time the principal vegetarian restaurants in Glasgow are the Eden in Argyle Street, and Cranston's Fruitarian Lunch Rooms, 28, Buchanan Street, and 43, Argyle Arcade. It seems difficult to get good premises in the right position at a reasonable rent, few cities have such splendidly fitted-up restaurants as Glasgow, and the competition is therefore very keen.

Edinburgh has two restaurants—The New Café, St. Andrew Square, and 16, Morrison Street.

Ireland has only three vegetarian restaurants; in Dublin, The College, 3, College Street, and Mitchell's Restaurant, Grafton Street; in Belfast the X.L. Café, 27, Corn Market.

Although not numerous the Irish restaurants are large and well conducted. The College and X.L. were opened by Mr. Leonard McCaughey, who formed the company in 1898, which was greatly enlarged in 1905, when it had under its control four vegetarian restaurants and two hotels.

Vegetarian Restaurants in America and on the Continent

There are vegetarian restaurants in many of the principal cities in America. They are run on lines quite distinct from those in England, a special feature being their fixed-price meals and the extensive number of dishes they offer that can be prepared to order. Many make a special feature of what are called unfired foods. The Macfadden Physical Culture Restaurants for instance quote Raw Strengthfudes, Physical Culture Medley, and other dishes strange to English restaurants.

On the Continent Germany had by far the greatest number of vegetarian restaurants. In the 1913-1914 guide, more than 200 restaurants are given, they are often quite small and are usually managed by the proprietor and his family with very little assistance. Munich had a very celebrated restaurant, The Ceres; the place being generally crowded and its cooking was renowned throughout the world. The Austrian restaurants come next in point of number, then Holland. Here a series of successful restaurants have been started and in several cases have an hotel connected with them. In Italy many of the cheaper restaurants are largely vegetarian in fact, though not in name or principle.

The Continental system of catering, both as regards kitchen practice and table service routine, presents several advantages to vegetarians. For one thing, the use of butter or olive oil in cooking vegetables is widespread, the substitution of lard or dripping being quite the exception. There can be no doubt that butter when carefully used adds much to the flavour of fried or "tossed" vegetables, and the same applies to good olive oil. Both, however, are expensive and have the disadvantage of burning (and then acquiring a disagreeably acrid taste) at a comparatively low temperature. Cooking fat prepared from properly refined cotton-seed oil does not possess the latter disadvantage, and is practically flavourless. So if when frying a deep bath of thoroughly hot fat is used, the vegetables should be crisp and retain their full natural flavour. This fat is not so satisfactory with the process known as "tossing," as in *pommes de terre sautées*, where the parboiled vegetable is warmed up and lightly browned in fat. For that butter or olive oil is preferable.

Another excellent point about the Continental system is that while vegetables are to some extent used as garnishes for meat and other dishes, as a general rule they are cooked separately and served as a special *entremet* course. Thus it is possible for a strict vegetarian to enter an ordinary restaurant and by judicious selection from the *carte du jour*, a general bill of fare, to arrange a quite satisfactory meal within the requisite dietetic limits.

Combined Menus

Indeed, it is commonplace matter for Continental caterers in countries where fast-day observance is prevalent, so to arrange their bills of fare that their Catholic customers should be able to select complete, even elaborate, meatless meals (with or without fish or eggs) without trouble or making themselves unduly conspicuous. This refinement of the catering art has received careful attention, and its effects may be traced in the menus of public and State banquets. Many of these, if attentively read, will be found to embody a menu within a menu—the list of dishes composing a lavish general banquet and a fine selection for a four or five course fast-day banquet. The menus of some of the European Courts, notably those of the late Austrian Empire, were remarkable in this respect.

This contains valuable hints for caterers in localities where there may not be a sufficient public to support an exclusively vegetarian restaurant, but yet where the possible support is worth taking into account and cultivating. The idea will also be of service in outdoor catering₃ work. At all events, it shows that with a little sound management in the stores department, the kitchen, and the servery, it is quite possible to provide for both general and vegetarian custom.

CHAPTER II]

OPENING AND EQUIPPING A VEGETARIAN RESTAURANT

Likely Positions : Good-Class Restaurants

THERE have been quite a number of unsuccessful vegetarian restaurants opened from time to time in London, their want of success being due in many instances to small and unsuitable premises. It is much more economical to prepare vegetarian foods on a fairly large scale, and it is very risky to open in London unless there is every prospect of obtaining a regular clientele of from four to five hundred customers a day. It is always an advantage to have room to extend the accommodation as soon as business grows enough to warrant it.

The successful restaurants are always established in busy centres, where there are numbers of people who are unable to get home for their midday meal.

This condition usually means that a likely position will be highly rented, and to meet this it is necessary to have sufficient space to accommodate as many people as are required to meet the heavy expenses involved. The modern restaurants must give their customers sufficient space. If people are packed together they will soon find another place where conditions are more comfortable.

Further, in this kind of business the working expenses do not increase in proportion to the amount of trade done, the expenditure on the *chef*, manageress, staff, kitchen, fire, light, and the various fixed charges, rent, rates, insurance, will be much the same if you deal with four hundred or six hundred customers a day.

If you have the lower number to cater for, your net profit will be smaller in comparison than it would be with the larger number ; every pound taken after the working expenses have been covered yields a greater proportion of profit.

Before deciding on a suitable site for a restaurant, careful observation should be made as to the number of people who leave the shops, offices, etc., of the district during the luncheon hour.

It is not essential to the success of a vegetarian restaurant that it should be established in a main thoroughfare ; as a rule the ordinary passers-by are not important as clients for this class of restaurant. The bulk of the customers will be people who try and find a place and do not mind going some distance for it.

The difference in rent is so considerable that it means success or failure. For instance, in the writer's experience a small restaurant in the main thoroughfare which paid £600 a year for rent and taxes did not

do as much trade as another restaurant in the same district that stood at only half the cost for rent. The management, menus, etc., were almost identical, but the fact that the restaurant in the side street gave more room, and was altogether more restful, secured a much larger patronage, and that, combined with the lower expenditure for rent and taxes, produced a satisfactory profit instead of an annual loss.

Vegetarian restaurants are largely patronised because they give exceptionally good value. The average amount paid on the checks of two or three of the better-class restaurants is only tenpence. This precludes the possibility of paying the heavy rents obtained for premises in the main thoroughfares of the West End of London and the City. In these districts to get the necessary space at a price that would make success probable, either an upper part or a large well-ventilated basement might be taken, and if tastily fitted up would probably be successful; but there is always a risk of trouble arising from the other tenants if a basement is used as a kitchen. All the people above will complain about the smell that is inseparable from cooking.

If the upper part is taken, there is the risk of the boiler overflowing, or water for one reason or another running into the rooms below and doing damage to the decorations and goods.

Some years ago a caterer in the City had to pay heavy compensation in consequence of the kitchen boiler overflowing during the night. The water spoilt the ceilings on four floors, and in the basement damaged a considerable amount of cloth.

Whenever possible the entire premises should be taken, and quite near the main road, so that a good sign could be fixed and easily seen from the busier thoroughfare.

The kitchen should be placed at the top of the house and an electric lift installed to carry goods up and the cooked dishes down to the service rooms.

Planning a Restaurant

The premises should be carefully planned, and great attention should be paid to getting the service room in the most effective position.

The service rooms are one of the most important departments in a restaurant, but if architects are not over-ruled by people with practical experience, they are very apt to put them in some out of the way corner, with little light and ventilation. They do not realise the necessity of quick service, and how important it is that the workers in this trying position should have good working conditions.

Efficient stillroom hands are most difficult to retain, and it pays the employer to study them as much as possible.

When the working parts of the restaurant have been marked out the seating accommodation should be planned so as to give sufficient room. The tables should be large enough to seat four or six people comfortably. For four people they should measure 4 feet by 2 feet 6 inches, and for a good-class restaurant at least 4 feet should be allowed between the tables.

In the cheaper places it is possible to do with a foot less where the tables only hold four, but if the tables hold six or eight an extra foot or eighteen inches should be allowed to enable the waitresses to pass between the seats.

Space is so expensive in the central parts of London that there is a great temptation to crowd people in, but for good-class vegetarian restaurants especially, it is a bad policy. There is such an abundance of restaurants now that people are more and more attracted to places where their comfort is studied.

The decorations should be as simple as possible, and a distinctive style should be carried out in each of the main rooms, but great care should be taken to choose decorations that can be brightened up without much trouble, as few places in London look bright and clean unless they are done up every second year. If allowed to go longer the rooms begin to look grubby and an impression of dirtiness is given to chance customers.

Oak or hardwood of some kind is much the best thing to use if funds permit. The first cost is the great item, the upkeep very slight. If wood is used that requires painting there is a large bill to meet for repainting every second or third year, and the difficult task to face of closing up the rooms long enough to enable the work to be done properly.

Tiles if carefully chosen are very effective as a dado, and if they are not carried up more than five feet from the floor, and finished with a nice simple wood moulding, they look attractive, and there is not likely to be any objection on account of their cold appearance. They are easily cleaned, and if of a sufficiently good type will not alter in colour.

The walls above the dado can be finished with one of the popular water-paints Wal Pamur, Duresco, etc. They are easily and quickly applied, and are free from the objectional smell of oil-paint.

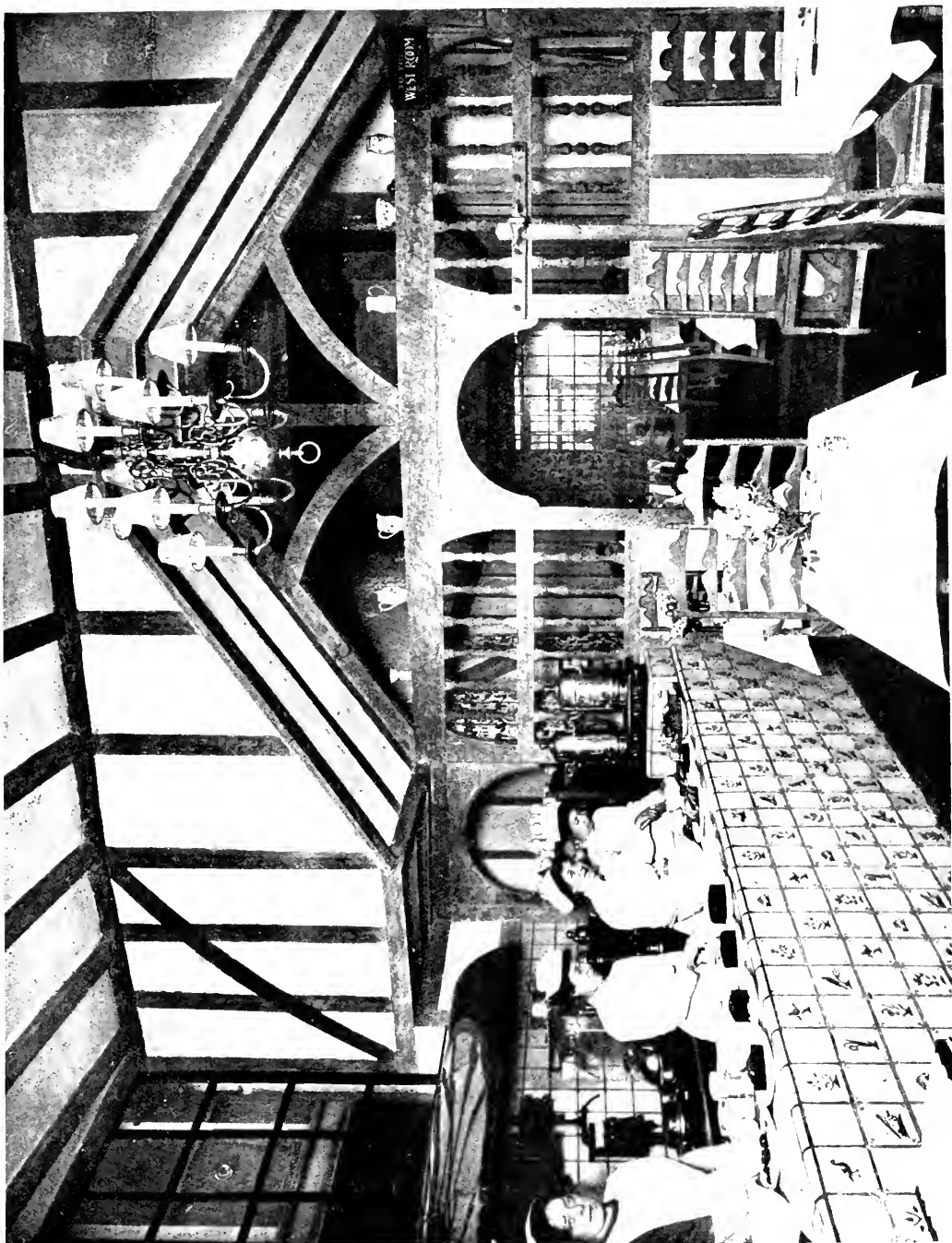
It is an advantage to have one of the lighter shades of colour, because it gives a clean appearance to the place, and also helps to reduce the electric light account.

In selecting premises, if possible get a building with plenty of light in all the rooms. It will mean a very considerable saving in the course of the year; daylight, besides being the cheapest form of illumination, is also the most attractive. People always prefer light, airy places, and vegetarian restaurants especially should have this advantage whenever possible.

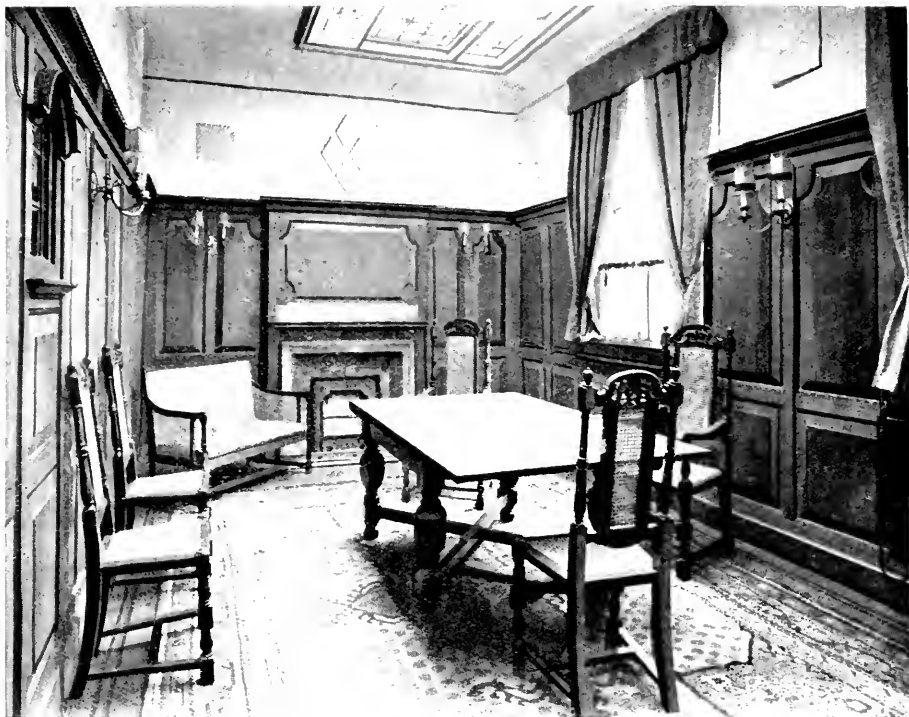
For artificial illumination, the electric light will always take the first place, but more light can be obtained at a lower cost by installing incandescent gas. The light is most brilliant and costs considerably less than the lamps and electric current.

For a cheaper class restaurant the Keith Falconer high-pressure gas would give excellent results; the light is very brilliant and the heat, owing to the small size of the mantle, hardly noticeable. The cost per candle power is very moderate.

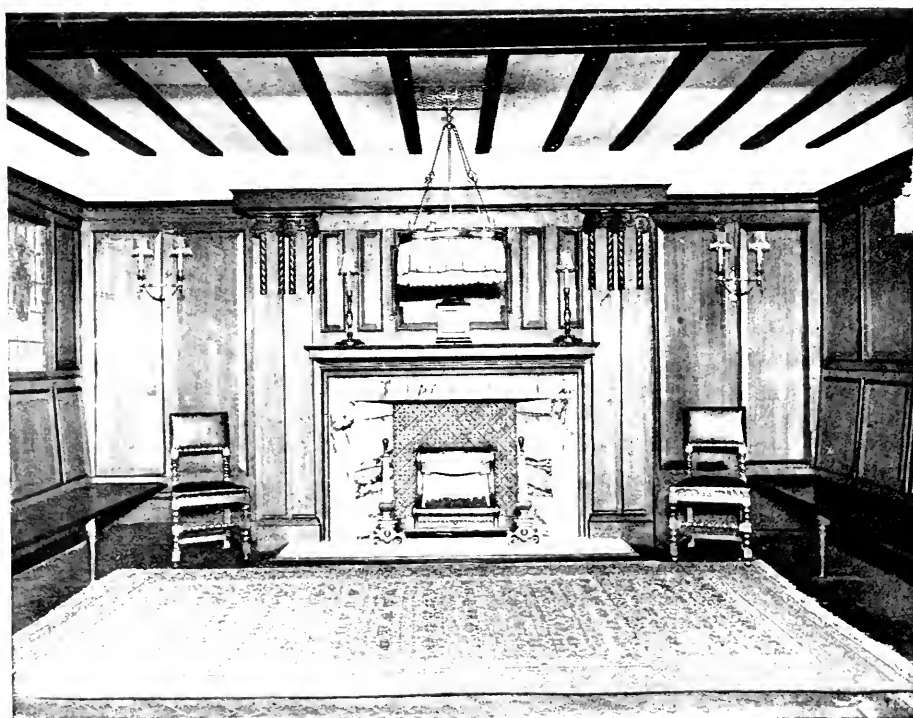
The darkening of the ceilings is not a very serious matter. In London they get effectively darkened by the atmosphere, and if a restaurant is



GROUND FLOOR DINING ROOM,
Showing a distinctive style of decoration.



GEORGIAN DINING ROOM,
WITH GAS "CANDLE" BRACKETS.



To face page 11.

A "PERIOD" PRIVATE DINING ROOM,
HEATED AND LIGHTED BY GAS.

OPENING AND EQUIPPING A RESTAURANT 11

to be kept in a presentable condition, the ceilings require distempering every other year.

For the dining-rooms, hardwood floors, if they can be laid without incurring a heavy expenditure, will be found very satisfactory. They are cool in summer and can always be kept clean, and there are no renewals to be provided for. Strips of good axminster carpet for the gangways will ensure quietness and give a comfortable appearance to the rooms.

If linoleum is decided upon, the best quality is cheapest in the end. A light pattern should be chosen so that the room will look clean without incessant brushing up, which is an advantage.

For the kitchen floor, sculleries, etc., good red tiles are very satisfactory. They are easily washed and then look clean and warm.

For the service rooms and wash-ups, one of the many floors that are made by embedding small pieces of marble in a cement base, and then rubbing down to a smooth surface, will be found to answer all requirements, and do much to keep the place free of pests.

Ventilation is a very difficult subject, but if expert advice is obtained when the building is taken over, it should be possible to arrange matters so that the air is changed frequently without causing customers to complain about draughts.

The heating should also receive very careful attention. The most effective and economical method is to get an installation of hot-water radiators put in by a competent firm. The whole place can then be kept comfortably warm, for a very small expenditure on firing, without closing every window.

The lavatory accommodation is a very important matter. Well-fitted lavatories help to bring customers to the restaurant, and secure a continuance of their patronage. Many city offices are very deficient in this kind of accommodation, and numbers of people greatly appreciate the advantage of having a good wash in the luncheon interval, and if they are staying in town in the evening, will choose a restaurant for the evening meal that provides this accommodation.

It is also advisable to provide a fair selection of papers and vegetarian books and literature for the use of customers.

Newly cut flowers add greatly to the attractiveness of the restaurant and are in keeping with the ideals of vegetarianism.

The type of building most desirable for a vegetarian restaurant is one that has plenty of space on the ground floor. Usually there will be a basement and three or four floors in addition.

The kitchen should be on the top floor to ensure plenty of light and the avoidance of smells. Great care should be taken to strengthen the floor, as the equipment, range, boiler, etc., are heavy. A suitable floor will have to be laid which will greatly add to the weight that has to be provided for. There will probably be room for a vegetable store with two large sinks for washing vegetables, etc., as well as the scullery with similar sinks for washing up kitchen utensils, bain-marie pots, etc., and the potato-peeling machine should be fixed up here if possible. When

laying the floor arrange if possible that it falls towards a gully that discharges into a rain-water pipe outside, as there is always a possibility of a tap being left on, or water overflowing for some reason or another, and flooding the place.

The second floor can be fitted up as a ladies' dining-room. If care is taken to provide good lavatory accommodation, and to make some reduction in the price for the smaller portions that ladies prefer, it will not be difficult to secure customers. Only a supplementary service room will be required for this floor, as supplies of all the hot things can be obtained from the service room on the first floor, if an express lift to carry five plates in each cage is fitted up.

It would probably pay to fit the first floor up as a special dining-room. By giving more space for each customer, decorating the room in a special manner, providing better plate and furniture, etc., and giving a separate menu with three or four special dishes on, it will be possible to obtain a special class of customers who will not object to paying higher prices generally, with the result that the checks in this room will be twenty-five per cent. higher than the average for the remainder of the restaurant, and to secure greater comfort people will willingly go up one flight of stairs.

The service room for this floor requires to be almost as complete in the matter of equipment as the main service floor. Special dishes will want to be nicely served, and in many cases egg and cheese dishes prepared on the spot. The ground-floor dining-room will do the bulk of the business, and as the trade has to be done in a very short time, great attention must be paid to the position and fitting up of the service room, counter, etc. The lifts from the kitchen and other floors will determine the position, and the washing-up place should if possible be outside as the noise prevents the orders being heard, and the water that gets splashed about makes the place dirty.

It is advisable to give as much room as can be spared, as in addition to the service of the dishes that are being kept hot in the bain-marie, there is a constant demand for Welsh rarebit, poached and scrambled eggs that have to be cooked on the gas-stove.

Kitchen and Service Room Equipment

The bain-maries in vegetarian restaurants differ in many respects from the serving tables of the meat restaurants.

There are usually three porridges, two soups, two stews, and six or seven vegetables that have to be kept hot, in addition to a number of baked dishes, both sweet and savoury, and the most satisfactory thing to do this effectively is by means of a large hot closet with three or four steam-heated shelves, a bain-marie top to hold ten large aluminum pots, some divided into two, and a large well for saucers, etc.

This combined hot closet and bain-marie requires to be very strongly made to resist the steam pressure, and costs with the pots from eighty to ninety pounds. A light galvanised substitute could be made, but after

OPENING AND EQUIPPING A RESTAURANT 13

a few years' wear would begin to develop defective places and cause a great deal of trouble.

A similar bain-marie and gas grill will be required for the first-floor service room, and to avoid unnecessary confusion during the busy time they should each draw fresh supplies from the kitchen or counter.

The basement will provide room for a good smoking-room. Dutch tiles are very effective decoration for this room, as they are easily cleaned and do not retain the smell of stale tobacco, which is objectionable even to smokers. Lounges should be provided for this room and the usual games—chess, draughts, and dominoes. An electric fan to extract the smoke is essential; it can usually be fitted in the chimney. The rest of the basement will provide space for a large store-room, coal cellars, etc., and if allowed by the Building Act, a lavatory for gentlemen.

The boiler-room should be placed under the service rooms and in addition to a three horse-power vertical boiler, should house the dish-washing machine, knife-cleaning machine and heating boiler. The same man who attends to the boiler can fill in his time with the other machines and be generally responsible for them. During the busy time he has assistance, and the plates are brought down to him by the electric lift, which should be arranged to end in this room. By this means a great deal of noise is kept away from the customers. A modern plate-washing machine cleans the plates much more effectively and quickly than washing them in tanks.

Lifts

An electric goods lift capable of carrying 5 cwt. is most desirable, as it is an increasingly difficult matter to get men to carry heavy loads up a lot of stairs. But a word of warning is necessary. The lift must be put in by a first-class firm, otherwise it may be a constant source of trouble, and endless expense will be incurred. The cost of current is quite negligible, only amounting to three or four shillings a week. A push-button lift that is worked by an automatic controller is the most satisfactory type to install.

In addition to the electric lift, a hand lift capable of carrying a load of 50 lbs. should be installed to send special orders to the service rooms. It is necessary that this lift should work very quickly. Three or four good pulls on the hand rope should bring it from the ground floor to the kitchen.

The two express lifts from the first-floor service room to the basement and second floor have already been mentioned.

Speaking tubes will be required direct from each floor to the kitchen, from the first floor to the ground floor, and from the second floor to the first floor. They should be placed near the service lifts, so as to be easily accessible to the boy stationed there.

Miscellaneous

The position of the kitchen plant should be carefully planned. A

continental range with two large ovens and a heavy top will be necessary. It should be made and fixed by one of the best makers as it will be worked at full pressure. The top will be kept full of cooking pots, boiling, simmering, and frying things all the morning. The ovens will also be fully occupied in the baking of various dishes. To supplement the oven accommodation it will be found an advantage to have a cabinet oven fitted up, it will be most useful for baking unleavened rolls, home-made biscuits, scones, pastries, etc. If the range should be out of action, this oven with the steam plant will permit of business being carried on just as usual.

A small gas hot-plate for buckwheat cakes, etc., although not indispensable, should be provided if there is room; but in any case a small gas-stove with two or three rings is necessary for dealing with special orders, omelettes, etc.

The steam cooking equipment is more important in a vegetarian restaurant; a large number of things are used that require considerable time in cooking—haricots, dried peas, porridges, soups, stews, etc.—and it will pay to install the following utensils:

Three 3-gallon low-pressure nickel-lined steam pans for soups and oatmeal porridge; four 6-gallon high-pressure steam-jacketed pans, cast aluminium by preference, for dried peas, haricots, lentils, cabbage, etc., and other things that have to be boiled quickly; two 3-tier steam ovens for potatoes or other vegetables, steamed puddings, and a considerable number of other things.

There are a few other appliances that are necessary which are not always found in a restaurant kitchen. Two nut mills with assorted graters for grinding nuts to a meal for the various dishes, mincing machines for grinding up the dried bread, haricots and other vegetables to make fritters, etc. A large size rotary potato masher for mashing vegetables, soups, etc., and a triturating machine for sauces, purées, etc. The remaining equipment of the kitchen is very similar to that of any large establishment and need not be detailed at length here.

An ample supply of sieves of different sizes and fineness of mesh is very necessary. Hair sieves are better than those with wire-mesh, and the unbleached last longer than the bleached. In many cases the use of mincing machines or pestle and mortar in the early stages of preparation will both give more satisfactory results and save undue wear and tear on the sieves. They should be cleaned by passing warm water through both ways and, if necessary, using a medium hard bristle, not a wire, brush, and setting to drain in a warm place.

Cleaning Processes

It would be difficult to pay too much attention to cleaning processes in vegetarian cookery. Not only are most flavours very delicate, some very strong and persistent, while many are easily interfered with and spoilt by admixture, but most vegetable substances when cooked quickly undergo fermentative and other changes, notably so with the cabbage tribe

and the nitrogenous pulses. So every particle of vegetable matter must be removed as quickly as possible from all utensils and implements used as soon as done with. Slightly alkaline hot water is usually quite enough for this, with provision for drainage and rapid drying.

Vegetable and fruit acids are a great source of trouble unless dealt with promptly, attacking alike iron and copper, and to a lesser degree tin and aluminium, producing on the iron compounds a black stain turning to rust, and on the copper verdigris, which is a source of danger. The effects of the sulphurous acid of onions on steel, which produces a black stain, unpleasant odour and disagreeable flavour, may be neutralised by the acids of most roots, so that if a potato is peeled or a carrot sliced after cutting an onion, the knife is effectually cleaned. Certain classes of chrome alloy steels—"stainless steels"—are practically acid-proof and so are most useful for cutlery and various kitchen utensils.

Some vegetable acids, among them those of the tomato, attack most of the aluminium alloys, but not to a dangerous or objectionable degree if simple precautions are taken. The acids attacking the metal form a new alloy, usually a very thin skin, a kind of patina, of darkish hue, fairly adherent to the metal. This forms a protective coating to the body of the metal, saving it from further corrosion, so it should not be removed by injudicious scrubbing with brush, sand or other abrasive. The proper way to clean aluminium cooking vessels is to wash with warm water, with a little soap if necessary, rinse out and dry with a soft cloth. Aluminium frying-pans should be cleaned while warm with grease-absorbing paper and finished with clean, soft cloth.

Tinned-ware must not be scratched in cleaning. It may be treated in the same way as aluminium ware. Special precautions must be taken when dealing with tinned copper vessels, because if the protective coating of white metal is injured the copper is quickly attacked and then awkward accidents may happen. Easy processes for home-tinning are to be deprecated generally, but more particularly in vegetable cooking.

CHAPTER III

MANAGEMENT

Staff

IN most London restaurants three-quarters of the trade is done in the middle of the day and a large staff is necessary to cope effectively with it. In the kitchen you would need for a restaurant serving four to five hundred customers daily a *chef*, assistant cook, pastrycook, vegetable cook and assistant, three boys for the lifts and a strong youth or woman on the tanks.

In the restaurant you would require a manageress, two counter hands, cashier, ten whole day and two half-day waitresses, four stillroom hands, three women to wash up full time, two half time, a man to attend to boilers and machines, youth to assist him in busy time, man to carry the plates up and down, and, in control of all departments, an efficient manager, by preference a strict vegetarian.

If the restaurant is established in a shopping centre or near the theatres, the proportion of trade done after lunch time will be greatly increased. To cope with it a larger staff will be required, as both kitchen hands and waitresses require relief.

Vegetarian caterers who employ a considerable number of people occasionally have trouble about the food provided. It is quite rare to get hold of a convinced vegetarian to work either as a waitress or kitchen hand, and naturally there is a certain amount of distrust about vegetarian foods, due to the lack of knowledge of these foods.

It is therefore wise to allow the staff a much larger choice than usual, and to advise them as far as possible about the kind of food they should take. Always see that fresh vegetables are cooked for the staff meals, and that there are sufficient savoury and sweet dishes available to meet any reasonable requirements.

The tea meal is usually looked forward to, and to make certain that all are getting proper nourishment, supply an egg or small Welsh rarebit in addition to the bread and butter. To comply with the Shop Act, a certain number of the staff have to take their dinner before the luncheon business starts; those who have to wait until after are usually offered porridge and milk or bread and butter and cocoa, so as to keep them well nourished during the rush hours, but avoid giving much tea.

If for any reason any of the staff are kept after the usual closing hours, bread, cheese, cocoa, lettuce or celery are always acceptable. It is advisable to treat the staff as generously as possible so as to secure their good will, and in addition to the wages, which should be slightly higher than the restaurants of the same class, pay the waitresses a small

commission on the amount of trade they do. This helps to ensure greater care in entering everything supplied to the customers on the checks.

To encourage them to remain in your service be generous with regard to holidays, give them two weeks instead of one, with full wages if they have been employed for a year.

At Christmas time, have a staff social where they can invite a friend each. All these things help to bind them to the place and prevent frequent changes. This is of great importance. The dishes and system are so different to the average restaurant, that it always takes some time to get a working knowledge of them. All the heads of the staff should depend considerably for their remuneration on the amount of business done and percentage of profit realised, and even the humbler members—cleaners, kitchen boys, etc.—are greatly encouraged to avoid waste and study your interests if they receive a small bonus whenever working expenses are met.

Afternoon and Evening Trade

The competition of the tea shops is very keen, and a satisfactory tea trade can only be done by offering special attractions, such as a selection of teas at the inclusive price of sixpence that show exceptional value compared with competing places.

The evening trade is only worth cultivating near places of amusement. A menu with fewer dishes meets the requirements of most people, as long as the dishes have been specially prepared.

As the vegetarian restaurants are usually large and have rooms that are not in demand after the luncheon hour, a nice addition to the nett profit of the business can be secured by letting the rooms to various societies, either for holding meetings, or for social gatherings, when refreshments are usually arranged for. These gatherings also help to make the restaurant better known and so increase the trade without adding to the advertising account. The profit realised from the refreshments is not very great, as it is necessary to keep a certain number of the staff on to serve them, and they naturally expect extra remuneration for this additional duty.

Superior Class Vegetarian Restaurants

There have been two attempts in recent years to establish a superior type of restaurant in the West End of London, but after a short time the schemes were abandoned for lack of sufficient patronage. The existing restaurants are run somewhat on the lines of the well-known Slaters, the type varying with the district they are established in. It is very problematical if vegetarian restaurants run on similar lines to the Holborn or Criterion would succeed in attracting sufficient patrons willing to pay the higher prices necessary to secure financial success.

The difference in the class of restaurant is very much a matter of organisation. More attention has to be paid to the cooking and service, more trained cooks would have to be employed and the wages bill generally

greatly increased. They would have to be established in the best positions, and this would mean a heavy rent and increase of cost all round, and judging from the results of previous experiments the financial success of such establishments would be most doubtful.

Sixpenny Restaurants

Many of the details of kitchen equipment, etc., given for a good-class restaurant apply to the cheaper ones as well, but as they deal with greater quantities and use steam for the preparation of the dishes much more largely, the boiler, steam pans, etc., need to be correspondingly larger. They usually cook all the things in bulk and then send them down in large pots that fit into a steam container in each service room.

The trade is done at high pressure and it is no uncommon experience for over 1,500 dinners to be served between 11.30 and 2.30. All the sixpenny restaurants close at three o'clock every afternoon. They cater almost entirely for factory hands, printers, warehousemen, etc., who leave the city early in the evening and take their tea meal at home.

In deciding on a suitable site, this fact must be borne in mind. Large premises at reasonable rent with factories or warehouses all round is the only place a sixpenny restaurant is likely to succeed in. The most successful one has been running for over thirty years. It has three large floors used as dining-rooms, one floor for staff rooms, stores and preparing rooms. The kitchen occupies the whole of the top, and the basement is given up to the boiler, coal cellar and storage accommodation.

As the staff work comparatively short hours they are not highly paid, and situated as these restaurants usually are, near a large working-class population, they get their staff without much difficulty.

The furniture, decoration and general equipment is of a much cheaper nature than the better class restaurants, but as everything is subjected to heavy wear, it must be strong and well made.

The cost of everything has to be carefully watched and a profit made wherever possible. Using such large quantities it is possible to pick up bargains. It is not uncommon to hear of things being bought in ton lots, or a job line of 100 cases of tomatoes being taken in one consignment, but by good management and hard work, these restaurants can be made to yield a handsome return on the capital invested.

Provincial Restaurants

The particulars that have been given as to the starting of a restaurant in London apply in a very large measure to the starting in provincial towns. Successful restaurants are always in crowded centres and run on a fairly large scale, and it is necessary to note carefully before deciding upon the position of a restaurant whether a large proportion of the workers in the district are in the habit of lunching near their work.

Since the introduction of electric tramways, numbers of people go home to their midday meal, and unless there is likely to be a sufficient

number of patrons it is better not to make an attempt to establish a large restaurant in a town well served by electric tramways.

As the rents in the provincial cities even in the best positions, are not as high as those in London, there would be every chance of success if the restaurant was opened to provide about 150 seats. The items for rent, rates, and taxes being considerably lower, and other charges in proportion, a smaller turnover would meet the expenses and provide a satisfactory profit.

In provincial restaurants teas should be made a prominent feature, as numbers of people that come in from the adjoining districts form an important proportion of the likely customers.

In seaside and smaller towns it will be much better to start a nicely fitted-up tea-shop, and provide a few vegetarian dishes. It is quite easy to select menus that the ordinary customer who is not at all inclined for vegetarian food will find very satisfactory. Tea-rooms will always be popular in holiday resorts, and if properly organised yield a satisfactory profit. Small restaurants have been run on vegetarian lines in various places, but have only had struggling existences, whereas when combined with tea-rooms or health food stores they have been more successful.

In connection with these restaurants a good business could be built up for supplying cooked foods, cutlets, raised pies, nutmeat rolls, and similar goods that keep fresh for a day or two; they can be taken away by the purchasers and used before they get stale.

A postal trade in these commodities is not often successful, many vegetarian foods go sour very soon and are quite uneatable, and it is only a very limited number that stand long journeys through the post and remain good long enough after to be palatable.

Marketing

Vegetarian restaurants like all others are successful in proportion to the amount of care that is exercised in this department. Those who get nearest to the original producer, and eliminate as many middlemen as possible, will secure the best ratio of profit. The best policy is to use plenty of fresh fruit and vegetables. To secure the best prices, send a really responsible person to the market three times a week, and buy direct from the growers. This has the double advantage of securing fresh stuff and obtaining it at a lower price.

Cereals should be bought in original packets whenever possible as long as there is no risk of deterioration before they are used. Canned goods, dried fruits, prunes, figs, apricots, dates, etc., should be booked to arrive, as by this means more favourable prices are obtained; raisins and sultanas are better selected after arrival, as there is such a variety in the pack, and the condition of the fruit with regard to its keeping qualities has to be taken into account.

Milk should be obtained from one of the large wholesale firms, and a contract entered into for summer and winter supplies, under a strict guarantee as to quality. A contract should also be entered into for

the supply of coal and coke from a reliable firm. Prompt payment should always be made so as to secure the goodwill of the firms you deal with. They will then bring to your notice any special lines they have to dispose of and often save you quite a fair amount in the course of the year.

Cooking Fats

As vegetarians are debarred from the use of dripping, lard, or fats that are obtained from slaughtered animals, they have always been searching for others of a purely vegetable origin. The demand thus created is to a great extent responsible for the large number of vegetable fats that are on the market at the present time.

Cocoanut fat is produced now in tremendous quantities and used for a number of purposes. There is quite a variety of makes on the market. The finest qualities answer almost every purpose, for frying in place of lard, for boiled puddings in place of suet, and when combined with milk and other fats of vegetable origin, are manufactured and sold under the name of nut margarine. These are effective substitutes for butter in nearly every kind of cooking. A guarantee should be obtained from the makers as to the freedom of these fats from any substance to which a strict vegetarian could take exception.

In addition to the cocoanut fats mentioned above, there are numerous oils made from cotton seed. They are considerably cheaper than the other fats and are very largely used for frying purposes, also in the manufacture of cheap cakes, pastries, etc. Most of these fats have a very unpleasant twang and disagree with many people. They have often been responsible for the bad name given to vegetarian cooking. A very exhaustive trial should be made before taking any of the cotton seed oils into use. It is safer to use the neutral cocoanut fat that has been found satisfactory for a number of years past.

Advertising

It is always a difficult problem to know where to advertise and how much to spend. A restaurant is different from a shop selling goods that can be despatched to far-away districts; customers must come and take their meals on the spot and there is a limit to the distance they will travel even for a favourite restaurant.

A board-man who promenades the thoroughfares near the restaurant distributing a tasteful card, which, in addition to placing the merits of the establishment before the recipient, also indicates clearly the position of the place, will be most helpful. Circularising all the offices of the district with a similar card will also help to bring in a good return, and a small standing advertisement in the leading health journal is valuable in securing the patronage of adherents to the cause when they visit the town.

It is so easy to expend money in advertising that careful watch must be kept on this account. It is not enough to think that because forty customers come to the place as the result of an expenditure of £1, an advertise-

ment therefore pays for itself, the real test is how much has the net profit been increased by this expenditure.

Finance

The capital required to start a good-class vegetarian restaurant will depend largely on the amount that it will be necessary to spend upon the building to adapt it for its required purpose.

If you are fortunate enough to hit upon a building in course of erection, a good deal of expenditure may be avoided by agreement with the building owner to finish the place so as to fit in with your requirements.

Assuming that the premises taken are in a good state of repair and do not require serious structural alterations, the sum of £750 will probably be sufficient to pay for the installation of lifts, a heating system, a scheme of ventilation, installation of kitchen, stillrooms, and lavatories, and a simple scheme of decoration.

It would not be necessary to carry out the scheme in its entirety, or to buy all the necessary equipment at the commencement. A start could be made by opening the ground floor and basement, and after sufficient trade had been gathered together the scheme could be completed. By doing this the working expenses would be kept at a much lower rate and make it easier to secure a profit at an early stage. When the business is yielding a profit it is comparatively easy to carry out extensions. An additional sum of £750 for working capital will probably be sufficient for any contingency, as cash is taken from the start and no credit has to be provided for.

Provision should however be made for the whole sum necessary to complete the installation of the fixed plant, furniture and all other requisites—this can be roughly estimated to cost about £1,500—but as before mentioned the whole sum need not be expended until the expansion of the business requires it.

The following balance sheets, trading, profit and loss accounts, which are given in full detail, indicate how much capital is likely to be required for fitting up a restaurant capable of seating 300 people. Although it is inadvisable to run the risk of being short of capital, on the other hand it is detrimental to be over-weighted with an amount that can only be invested to yield a moderate rate of interest, instead of being more profitably employed in the actual business.

For the first few years every effort should be made to build up a substantial reserve, as vegetarian restaurants are liable to rather violent fluctuations. For instance, a few years ago when influenza first made its appearance in London, many doctors advised people generally to eat more meat, and caused a very serious decline in the takings of some of the existing vegetarian restaurants. Later on they were telling people to eat less meat, and so helping to increase the trade of vegetarian restaurants.

For this reason the profits available should be distributed carefully until a reserve equal at least to one-third of the paid-up capital has been

securely invested. When this has been achieved it would be right to make a larger distribution to shareholders, but better still to inaugurate some scheme by which the staff as a whole could share in the prosperity of the company.

It is sometimes difficult to persuade shareholders of the necessity of writing off depreciation after money has been expended in repairs, but unless this is done consistently, there will always be a risk that some expensive item, such as a boiler costing £50, might have to be replaced, and the provision of so large a sum would cause a considerable drop in the amount that would otherwise be available for dividends.

The figures given in the accounts of a restaurant that specialises in supplying three-course dinners for sixpence, show a more favourable ratio of profit, but this result can only be obtained by very careful buying and making up dishes from the less expensive materials.

The accounts have been given in the form that is usual with limited liability companies; for a private concern the owner will secure as his net profit the manager's salary in addition to the balance of the profit and loss account.

ONE YEAR'S ACCOUNTS OF A GOOD-CLASS VEGETARIAN RESTAURANT

| | | TRADING ACCOUNT | | |
|-----------------------------|---|-----------------|--------|-------|
| <i>Dr.</i> | | | £ | s. d. |
| To Purchases | . | £3,250 | | |
| „ Wages of Staff | . | 1,150 | | |
| | | | 4,400 | 0 0 |
| „ Gross Profit carried down | . | | 2,100 | 0 0 |
| | | | £6,500 | 0 0 |
| <i>Cr.</i> | | | £ | s. d. |
| By Cash Takings | . | | 6,500 | 0 0 |
| | | | £6,500 | 0 0 |

| | | PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|-------------------------|-----|-------|
| <i>Dr.</i> | | | £ | s. d. |
| To Rent, Rates and Insurance | . | £850 | | |
| Less Cash received for hire of rooms | . | 100 | | |
| | | | 750 | 0 0 |
| „ Lighting and Fuel | . | | 150 | 0 0 |
| „ Washing and Cleaning | . | | 35 | 0 0 |
| „ Printing | . | | 60 | 0 0 |
| „ Advertising and Trade Expenses | . | | 100 | 0 0 |
| „ Repairs, Renewals and Maintenance | . | | 100 | 0 0 |
| „ Manager's Salary | . | | 250 | 0 0 |
| „ Secretary's Salary | . | | 20 | 0 0 |
| „ Depreciation :— | | | | |
| Furniture | . | | 28 | 0 0 |
| Loose Plant | . | | 50 | 0 0 |
| Linen | . | | 17 | 10 0 |
| China, Glass, etc. | . | | 20 | 0 0 |
| Fixed Plant | . | | 52 | 10 0 |
| Lifts | . | | 37 | 10 0 |
| Buildings | . | | 21 | 0 0 |

MANAGEMENT

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| | | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|--------|----|----|
| By Net Profit, carried to Appropriation Account | £ | s. | d. |
| | 408 | 10 | 0 |
| | £2,100 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Cr.</i> | £ | s. | d. |
| By Gross Profit brought down | 2,100 | 0 | 0 |
| | £2,100 | 0 | 0 |

APPROPRIATION ACCOUNT

| | | | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|----|----|
| <i>Dr.</i> | £ | s. | d. |
| To Dividend on 1,000 6 per cent. Preference Shares | 60 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Dividend of 10 per cent. on 2,000 Ordinary Shares, 15s. paid up | 150 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Manager, 10 per cent. on Net Profit | 40 | 17 | 0 |
| „ Directors' Fees | 50 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Auditors' „ | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Balance carried forward | 92 | 13 | 0 |
| | £408 | 10 | 0 |
| <i>Cr.</i> | £ | s. | d. |
| By Net Profit, brought down | 408 | 10 | 0 |
| | £408 | 10 | 0 |

Share Capital Authorised 5,000 Shares of £1 each, £5,000

BALANCE SHEET

| | | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------|--------|----|----|
| <i>Dr.</i> | £ | s. | d. |
| To Share Capital Issued | | | |
| 1,000 6 per cent. Preference Shares of £1 each. | £1,000 | | |
| 2,000 Ordinary Shares of £1 each, 15s. called up | 1,500 | | |
| | 2,500 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Sundry Creditors | 300 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Reserve Account | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Profit and Loss Account | 408 | 10 | 0 |
| | £3,308 | 10 | 0 |
| <i>Cr.</i> | £ | s. | d. |
| By Cash at Bank on Current Account | 500 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Cash at Bank on Deposit Account | 600 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Cash in hand | 30 | 0 | 0 |
| | 1,130 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Stock of Provisions | 300 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Sundry Debtors (Hire of Rooms for Socials) | 25 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Furniture | 280 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Less</i> Depreciation, 10 per cent. | 28 | 0 | 0 |
| | 252 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Loose Plant | 200 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Linen | 70 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Earthenware, China and Glass | 80 | 0 | 0 |
| | 350 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Less</i> Depreciation, 25 per cent | 87 | 10 | 0 |
| | 262 | 10 | 0 |

CATERING MANAGEMENT

| | £ | s. | d. | £ | s. | d. |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|----|----|--------|----|----|
| By Lifts | 250 | 0 | 0 | | | |
| Less Depreciation, 15 per cent. | 37 | 10 | 0 | | | |
| | | | | 212 | 10 | 0 |
| „ Fixed Plant | 700 | 0 | 0 | | | |
| Less Depreciation, 7½ per cent. | 52 | 10 | 0 | | | |
| | | | | 647 | 10 | 0 |
| „ Building Account | 500 | 0 | 0 | | | |
| Premium on Leasehold Redemption Policy to secure this sum at the end of 20 years | 21 | 0 | 0 | | | |
| | | | | 479 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | | £3,308 | 10 | 0 |

ONE YEAR'S ACCOUNTS OF A SIXPENNY-DINNER VEGETARIAN RESTAURANT

TRADING ACCOUNT

| Dr. | £ | s. | d. |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|--------|-----|
| To Cost of Provisions | £3,025 | | |
| „ Wages of Staff | 876 | | |
| | | 3,901 | 0 0 |
| „ Gross Profit carried down | | 1,599 | 0 0 |
| | | £5,500 | 0 0 |
| Cr. | £ | s. | d. |
| By Cash Takings | | | |
| (Estimate about 1,000 per day ; average 5d. per head ; open 11.30 to 3.30, 5 days) | | 5,500 | 0 0 |
| | | £5,500 | 0 0 |

PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT

| Dr. | £ | s. | d. |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|----|----|
| To Rent, Rates and Insurance | 650 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Lighting and Fuel | 104 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Printing | 30 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Advertising and Trade Expenses | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Repairs | 50 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Depreciation :— | | | |
| Furniture | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| Plate, etc. | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| Earthenware and Utensils | 27 | 10 | 0 |
| Fixed Plant | 45 | 0 | 0 |
| Lifts | 37 | 10 | 0 |
| Alterations to Building Leasehold Redemption Policy to secure £500 expended at end of 20 years | 21 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Net Profit, carried to Appropriation Account | 516 | 0 | 0 |
| | £1,599 | 0 | 0 |
| Cr. | £ | s. | d. |
| By Gross Profit brought down | 1,599 | 0 | 0 |
| | £1,599 | 0 | 0 |

MANAGEMENT

25

APPROPRIATION ACCOUNT

| Dr. | £ | s. | d. |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|----------|----------|
| To Dividend on 1,000 6 per cent. Preference Shares . . . | 60 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Dividend of 15 per cent. on 1,000 Ordinary Shares, 10s. paid up | 75 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Manager, 10 per cent. on Net Profit | 51 | 12 | 0 |
| „ Directors and Secretary | 60 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Auditors | 12 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Reserve | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| „ Balance carried forward | 157 | 8 | 0 |
| | <u>£516</u> | <u>0</u> | <u>0</u> |
| Cr. | £ | s. | d. |
| By Net Profit brought down | 516 | 0 | 0 |
| | <u>£516</u> | <u>0</u> | <u>0</u> |

Share Capital Authorised 5,000 Shares of £1 each, £5,000 BALANCE SHEET

| Dr. | £ | s. | d. |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|---------------|------------|
| To Share Capital Issued | | | |
| 1,000 6 per cent. Preference Shares of £1 each. | £1,000 | | |
| 1,000 Ordinary Shares of £1 each, 10s. called up | 500 | | |
| | | 1,500 | 0 0 |
| „ Sundry Creditors | | 250 | 0 0 |
| „ Reserve Account | | 100 | 0 0 |
| „ Profit and Loss Account | | 516 | 0 0 |
| | | <u>£2,366</u> | <u>0 0</u> |
| Cr. | £ | s. | d. |
| By Cash at Bank | 562 | 10 | 0 |
| „ Cash in hand | 42 | 10 | 0 |
| | | 605 | 0 0 |
| „ Stock of Provisions | | 250 | 0 0 |
| „ Sundry Debtors | | 10 | 0 0 |
| „ Furniture | 150 | 0 | 0 |
| Less Depreciation, 10 per cent. | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| | | 135 | 0 0 |
| „ Plate, Spoons, etc. | 40 | 0 | 0 |
| Less Depreciation, 7½ per cent. | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| | | 37 | 0 0 |
| „ Earthenware and Utensils | 110 | 0 | 0 |
| Less Depreciation, 25 per cent. | 27 | 10 | 0 |
| | | 82 | 10 0 |
| „ Lifts | 250 | 0 | 0 |
| Less Depreciation, 15 per cent. | 37 | 10 | 0 |
| | | 212 | 10 0 |
| „ Fixed Plant | 600 | 0 | 0 |
| Less Depreciation, 7½ per cent. | 45 | 0 | 0 |
| | | 555 | 0 0 |
| „ Building Account | 500 | 0 | 0 |
| Premium on Leasehold Redemption Policy to secure this sum at the end of 20 years | 21 | 0 | 0 |
| | | 479 | 0 0 |
| | | <u>£2,366</u> | <u>0 0</u> |

CHAPTER IV

COMPILATION OF MENUS

THIS is a most important matter and requires a knowledge of food values to avoid such unsatisfactory combinations as lentil roast and butter beans, haricot pie and pease pudding. Care should be taken that as far as possible each savoury dish offered should be well balanced and provide a due proportion of proteid, either by the use of nuts, legumes, cheese or milk.

If the dish itself is not nutritious, always add such a vegetable as marrowfats (dried peas), haricots, etc., to balance it. It is quite simple to provide dishes that are quite complete, such as macaroni cheese, haricot and potato pie, and nut cutlets; these with a green vegetable make up a satisfactory ration.

The vegetarian caterer has an almost bewildering selection of foods to draw upon. In recent years several manufacturers have turned their attention to the production of various foods that are largely composed of nuts, these are available for use without any more preparation than flesh meat requires.

Nuts when properly prepared and mixed with other materials make up into delicious dishes that are easily digested and acceptable to the majority of people, but in vegetarian restaurants, as in all others, the best results can only be obtained by people willing to take pains, and acquire a knowledge of the foods they are using. The pulse foods should be used with moderation and be thoroughly cooked. They are very nutritious and if taken in excess are likely to cause digestive troubles. They therefore require serving with discretion, and the service hands need watching, for as a general rule they look upon these foods as cheap vegetables that can be served generously.

With few exceptions vegetarian restaurants find it necessary to offer quite a variety of dishes, and great care has to be taken to avoid exact repetitions of the menu. There are certain dishes that always sell, such as macaroni cheese, walnut cutlets, butterbean pie, lentil roast, etc., but it is advisable to constantly try new dishes and select those that catch on with the customers for repetition.

The names given to the various dishes should as far as possible indicate their composition; fancy names puzzle people and cause a great waste of time in consequence of the desire for knowledge on the part of the customer, and waitresses as a rule are unable to satisfy. The prices charged will be determined by the cost of the materials composing the dish, and when fixed should not be varied, otherwise disputes will arise and cause confusion.

It is wise to allow a customer to change a dish if he wishes to after seeing it. Vegetarian dishes are almost unknown in the average home,

and some dishes do not look as nice as they taste. If a customer is humoured in this way he is likely to stick to you.

The following menus will give some indication of the kind of dishes used in vegetarian restaurants. Quite recently several vegetarian cookery books have been published (a list can be obtained from either of the vegetarian societies) which, if studied by the vegetarian caterer, will give him ideas for new dishes.

The possibilities that vegetarian foods offer to the trained *chef* are boundless, and before long the increasing difficulties of obtaining flesh meat, and the greater knowledge that is gradually permeating all classes of people as to the value of vegetarian foods, will make it incumbent on all cooks who desire to advance in their profession to give this subject their careful attention.

Vegetarian menus are often criticised because they use the same names as are used on ordinary menus. Surely it is permissible to use terms such as cutlet, that indicates a certain shape, fritter or *au gratin*, a method of cooking. For even the term "meat" is defined in a leading dictionary as "food in general" and in the Bible where the food suitable for man is fully defined in Genesis I. 29, although strictly vegetarian in its character, ends with the sentence: "To you it shall be for 'meat,'" but it is quite unnecessary to use such terms as "mock fish," "ham," or "goose," as is occasionally done.

As vegetarian menus are usually something of a puzzle to customers and also to the new hands, it is a good plan to number the dishes on the menus, then if a customer orders No. 6 it is probable that he will get what he requires, but if the name is used either the waitress or still-room hand is liable to make a mistake. By keeping certain numbers for certain types of dishes, you greatly help the service room. For instance, a pie of some kind is a daily feature and should be always No. 4, a cheap fry also No. 5, and so on.

SPECIMEN MENUS

MENU OF A GOOD-CLASS RESTAURANT

No. 1—(this portion typed daily).

Porridges, 3d.

(With milk or syrup).

Shredded Wheat.

Oatmeal.

Manhu Wheat.

Semolina.

Plasmon Oats, Grape Nuts, Granose,

"Force," Toasted Corn Flakes with
Hot Milk.

Soups

Lentil Broth.

Thick Vegetable.

Savouries

Proteid Cutlets, Green Peas, New

Potatoes 8d.

Nut Roast, Cauliflower, Lyonnaise

Potatoes 8d.

Macaroni Italian, Spinach, Grilled

Tomatoes 6d.

Brown Bean and Tomato Pie,

Savoury Potatoes 5d.

Savoury Sausage, Mashed Pota-

toes, Spring Greens 5d.

Stuffed Vegetable Marrow, Brown

Sauce, Haricots, Potatoes 6d.

Norfolk Dumpling Stew, Marrow-

fats 5d.

Baked Rice and Cream Corn

Omelet, Lentils 5d.

Stewed Barley, Onions, Marrowfats

5d.

CATERING MANAGEMENT

Vegetables

Cauliflower. Spinach. Grilled Tomatoes.
Lentils. Spring Greens.
Potatoes—Boiled, Mashed, Savoury,
Lyonnaise. Macaroni.

Sweets

Raspberry and Red Currant
Pudding and Cream . . . 4d.
Cherry Meringue Tart and Cream . 4d.
Mixed Fruit Pie, Custard Sauce . 3d.
Cocoanut Pudding, Custard Sauce . 3d.
Wholemeal College Roll, Fruit
Sauce 3d.
Tapioca Custard 3d.
Fruit Salad and Cream . . . 5d.
Fruit and Nut Medley and Cream . 4d.
Compôte of Fruit on Triscuit . 4d.
Apple Tart, Custard Sauce . . 3d.
Apricot Tart, Custard Sauce . . 3d.

Vegetables

Cauliflower. Spinach. Spring Cabbage.
Grilled Tomatoes. Spring Greens.
Potatoes—Boiled, Mashed, Lyonnaise.
Butterbeans. Marrowfats. Macaroni.

Sweets

Gooseberry Tart and Cream . 4d.
Apple and Cherry Pie, Custard
Sauce 3d.
Creamed Rice and Apricots . 4d.
Baked Sultana Pudding, Custard
Sauce 3d.
Wholemeal Fig and Nut Roll,
Fruit Sauce 3d.
Vermicelli Custard 3d.
Fruit Salad and Cream . . . 5d.
Fruit and Nut Medley and Cream . 4d.
Compôte of Fruit on Triscuit . 4d.
Apple Tart, Custard Sauce . . 3d.
Apricot Tart, Custard Sauce . . 3d.

No. 2—(this portion typed daily).

Porridges, 3d.

(With milk or syrup).

Shredded Wheat.

Oatmeal.

Manhu Wheat.

Maize.

Plasmon Oats, Grape Nuts, Granose,
"Force," Toasted Corn Flakes with
Hot Milk.

Soups, 3d.

Scotch Broth } With Brown or
Tomato Purée. } White Bread.

Savouries

Cheese and Tomato Cutlets, New
Potatoes, Cauliflower . . . 8d.
Jugged Nutton, Lyonnaise Potatoes,
Spinach 8d.
Macaroni *au gratin*, Grilled Tomatoes,
Spring Cabbage 6d.
Mushroom and Potato Pie,
Brown Sauce, Marrowfats . 5d.
Vegetable Steak, Tomato Sauce,
Spring Greens, Mashed Potatoes . 5d.
Baked Lentil and Tomato Omelet,
Savoury Rice, Potatoes . 6d.
Cold Savoury Pie, Mixed Salad . 6d.
Vegetables à la Mode, Butterbeans . 5d.
Asparagus, Hollandaise Sauce,
New Potatoes 6d.

Dessert

[Menu in permanent type.]

Plate of Mixed Fruit 6d. and 4d.
Two Apples 3d.
Two Bananas 3d.
Orange 1d.
Dates or Figs 2d.
Muscatels and almonds . . . 3d.
Roasted Pine Kernels . . . 2d.
New Brazils 3d.
Shelled Hazels, Walnuts, or
Cashewnuts 2d.
Shelled Hazels, Walnuts, and
Dates 3d.
Freshly Ground or Roasted Nuts . 3d.
Freshly made Fruit and Nut
Cakes 2d.
Dates stuffed with Nuts . . . 3d.

Sundries

Wholemeal or White Bread or
Rolls 1d.
Veda Bread and Butter . . . 2d.
Butter per pat 1d.
Walnut Butter 1d.
Wallace Scone 1½d.
White Sultana Scone 1d.
Serviette 1d.
Savoury Nut Sandwiches . . 3d.
Cheese and Egg Sandwiches . 3d.
Honey and Nut Sandwiches . 3d.

COMPILATION OF MENUS

29

Special Dishes prepared to Order

[Menu in permanent type.]

| | |
|------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Macaroni Cheese . . . | 6d. |
| Macaroni and Tomatoes . . | 6d. |
| Omelettes, Tomato, Savoury or Cheese . . . | 7d. |
| Omelettes, Indian, Mushroom . | 7d. |
| Omelettes, Sweet . . . | 7d. |
| Omelettes, Banana . . . | 7d. |
| Welsh Rarebit . . . | 4d. |
| Welsh Rarebit, with Egg . . | 7d. |
| Two Poached or Scrambled Eggs on Toast . . . | 7d. |
| Two Poached or Scrambled Eggs on Mashed Potatoes . . | 7d. |
| Pancake . . . | 3d. two 5d. |
| Curried Rice or Macaroni . . | 4d. |
| Indian Dahl (Rice, Lentils, Egg and Curry) . . . | 6d. |
| Kedgeriee (Lentils, Curry and Onions) . . . | 6d. |

Salads

| | |
|------------------------------------------|-----|
| Mixed Salad . . . | 3d. |
| Mixed Salad, with Mayonnaise Sauce . . . | 4d. |
| Tomatoes (Two) . . . | 3d. |
| Lettuce . . . | 2d. |

Cheese

| | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Gruyère, Cream, Gorgonzola, Camembert, Cheshire, St. Ivel Lactic . . . | 2d. |
| Cheddar . . . | 1d. and 2d. |

Beverages

[Menu in Permanent Type.]

| | |
|------------------------------------------------------|--------------|
| Cup of Tea, Coffee, or Cocoa . | 2d. |
| „ Special Coffee, with Cream | 3d. |
| „ Chocolate . . . | 3d. |
| „ Instant Postum . . . | 2d. |
| Natural Lemonade . . . | 1½d. |
| Lemon Squash . . . | 3d. |
| Milk . . . | 1d. hot 1½d |
| Soda and Milk . . . | 2d. |
| Ginger Beer (Distilled Water) . | 2d. |
| Lemonade (Distilled Water) . | 2d. |
| Special Dry Ginger Ale (Cantrell and Cochrane) . . . | 3d. |
| Lime Juice . . . | 2d. |
| Devonshire Cydro . . . | ½ Bottle 3d. |
| „ „ Per Bottle | 6d. |
| Kops Ale or Stout . . . | 2d. |
| Marmite (Vegetable Substitute for Beef Tea) . . . | 3d. |
| Horlick's Malted Milk, hot or cold | 3d. |

SPECIMEN MENU FOR SIXPENNY DINNERS

[Each line represents one course. Three courses, sixpence.]

Porridges

Oatmeal. Wheat Meal, Maize.
(With Milk, Syrup, or Fruit.)

Soups

Green Pea. Hotch Potch.
(With Bread, Allinson Wholemeal, etc.)

Entrées, etc.

| | | |
|----------------------|------|----------------|
| Rice and Tomato | with | Marrowfats. |
| Fritter with Brown | | Potatoes. |
| Gravy. | | Cabbage. |
| Curried Vegetable | | Tomatoes. |
| Stew. | | Beetroot. |
| * Carrots Maitre | | Rice. |
| d'Hôtel. | | Haricots. |
| * Boston Baked Beans | | Split Lentils. |
| Cold Savoury Pie. | | Pease |
| Dressed Salad. | | Pudding |

* Entrées thus marked do not contain Onions.

Warm Sweets

Sultana Pudding.
Macaroni Pudding.
Sago Pudding.
Boiled Rice with Fruit or Syrup.

Cold Sweets

Blanc Mange or Rice Mould.
(With Fruit or Strawberry Jam.)

Stewed Fruits, etc.

French Plums.
Cherries and Currants.
Apples. Figs. Plums.
Biscuits and Cheese.
Scone and Butter.
Horlick's Malted Milk.
(Hot or Cold, 3d.)

Tea, 1d. per Cup. Coffee or Cocoa, 2d. per Cup. Small Coffee, 1d. Soda and Milk, and Lemonade, 1d. Salutaris Ginger Ale, 2d.

CATERING MANAGEMENT

ALTERNATIVE MENU FOR SIX-PENNY DINNERS

[Each line represents one course.
Three courses, sixpence.]

Porridges

Oatmeal. Wheat Meal.
Hominy.
(With Milk, Syrup or Fruit.)

Soups

Tomato. Scotch Broth.
(With Bread, Allinson Wholemeal, etc.)

Entrées, etc.

| | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Savoury Fritter Egg Sauce. Vegetable Stew. Bubble and Squeak. Macaroni Neapolitan. * Mock Lobster (Cold) * French Salad. | with | Potatoes. Cabbage. Tomatoes. Beetroot. Rice. Haricots. Split Lentils. Pease Pudding. |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

* Entrées thus marked do not contain Onions.

Warm Sweets

Cherry and Currant Pudding.
Tapioca Pudding.
Cornflour Pudding.

Cold Sweets

Blanc Mange or Rice Mould.
(With Fruit or Plum Jam.)

Fruits, etc.

Apples. Blackcurrants.
Figs. Plums.

MENUS FOR SPECIAL BREAK-FASTS

Porridges

Oatmeal. Granose Flakes.

Hot Dishes

Scrambled Eggs and Tomatoes.
Savoury Pancakes.
Hot Protose Rolls.
Grilled Mushrooms on Toast.

Cold Dishes

Savoury Mould.
Tomato and Macaroni Mould.
Roasted Pine Kernels.
Raspberries on Shredded Wheat.

Coffee. Tea. Postum.

MENUS FOR SPECIAL BREAK-FASTS

Porridges

Manhu Wheat. Toasted Corn Flakes.

Hot Dishes

Savoury Omelette.
Fried Tomatoes.
Grilled Nutmeat Lyonnaise Potatoes.

Cold Dishes

Raised Pie.
Potted Lentils.

Buckwheat Cakes and Maple Syrup.
Jellied Pineapple with Cream.

Chocolate. Tea. Coffee.

SPECIAL TWO-AND-SIXPENNY DINNER MENU

Purée of Green Corn.
Consommé Italian.

Salsify Patties.
New Potatoes Maitre d'Hôtel.

Walnut Cutlets.
Cauliflower. Brown Potatoes.

Macaroni au Gratin.
Seakale. Grilled Tomatoes.

Baked Albert Pudding.
Boiled Almond and Raisin Pudding.

Cheese. Celery. Biscuits.

Dessert.

Coffee. Natural Lemonade.

SPECIAL THREE-SHILLING DINNER MENU

Consommé Vermicelle.
Purée of Artichokes.

Celeriac Fritters.
Egg Sauce. New Potatoes.

Sweet Corn Patties.
Chichorée à la Bretonne.

Protose à la Jardinière.
Cauliflower. Brown Potatoes.

Princess Pudding.
Apple Charlotte.
Fruit Salad.

1
Dessert.

Natural Lemonade. Coffee.

Cheese. Cress. Biscuits.

SPECIAL FOUR-SHILLING DINNER MENU

Dessert.

Natural Lemonade. Coffee.

SPECIAL THREE-AND-SIXPENNY DINNER MENU

Croutes au Parmesan.

Consommé Julienne.
Asparagus Soup.

Plasmon Fritter.
Green Peas. New Potatoes. Egg
Sauce.

Pine Kernel Cutlets.
Mixed Salad, Mayonnaise Sauce.

Asparagus.
Hollandaise Sauce.

Lemon Pudding.
Apricots à la Condé.

Raspberry Ice Wafers.

Cheese. Cress. Biscuits.

Hors d'Œuvre.

Tomato Purée. Consommé Julienne.

Savoury Fillets.
Parsley Sauce. Boiled Potatoes.

Mushroom Patties,
Cape Broccoli.

Nut Fritters.
Brown Sauce. Baked Potatoes.

Muscatel and Almond Pudding.
Custard Sauce.

Carthusian Dumplings.
Jam Sauce.

Fruit Salad.

Ice Pudding.

Celery. Cheese. Biscuits.

Dessert.

Coffee. Natural Lemonade.

The following formidable Bill of Fare from America is interesting on many accounts, as it illustrates the magnitude of the trade over there, and if carefully read affords a number of suggestions which could be usefully adapted over here.

MACFADDEN PHYSICAL CULTURE RESTAURANTS

—————
BREAKFAST FROM 7 O'CLOCK
DINNER UNTIL 8 O'CLOCK
—————

Main Office—656, Broadway, N.Y.

We are doing our utmost to provide pure wholesome nourishing foods at a moderate price. Our patrons can greatly assist us by bringing in their

friends. All who wish to attain the highest degree of health will find the necessary elements in our plain foods, soup, cereals, etc.

Parties of eight or more desiring to lunch together, can arrange with Manager to have tables reserved.

Our Motto

Pure Food. Prompt Service.
Pleasant Surroundings.

FULL COURSE DINNER
(Cooked)
25 Cents.

SPECIAL TO-DAY.

(Consists of one dish under each heading)

Full order of any of these dishes served separately if desired.

Soups

Tomato Bisque. Yellow Pea.

*Vegetables*Baked Spaghetti and Tomatoes, Carrots
Succotash.*Cereals*Whole Meat. Rice and Raisins.
Wheat.*Salads*

Apple and Banana. Cabbage. Potato

Stewed Fruits

Figs. Prunes. Apple Sauce.

Desserts

Steamed Fig Pudding.

Cocoanut Layer Cake.

W. W. Prune Pudding and Cream.

W. W. Date Pudding and Fruit Sauce.

Rice Pudding. Dates and Cream.

Pies Mince.

*Drinks*Cereal Coffee. Milk. Butter Milk.
Bensdorp's Royal Dutch Cocoa.Choice of Dairy Butter, Peanut
Butter.Choice of Whole Wheat Bread,
Physical Culture uncooked Bread or
Triscuit, Graham Wafers, Dietetic
Biscuits and Milk Biscuits.

SUPPER

Soups

Yellow Pea. Tomato Bisque.

Vegetables

Carrots. Spaghetti. Lima Beans.

Salads

Fruit Salad. Potato. Vegetable.

Fruits

Figs. Prunes. Apple Sauce.

Desserts

W. W. Prune Pudding and Cream.

Cocoanut Pudding. Fig Pudding

W. W. Date Pudding. Rice Pudding.

Drinks

Milk, Butter Milk, Cereal Coffee.

Physical Culture Egg Nogg, 5 cents
extra. Bensdorp's Royal Dutch Cocoa,
5 cents. Sliced Pineapple, 10 cents.
Sliced Cucumbers, 10 cents.

OUR SPECIAL BREAKFAST

(Served from 7 A.M. to 11 A.M.)

Cents

| | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Cereal 2 Eggs, Coffee, Bread and Butter | 20 |
| 3 Eggs, Bread and Butter, Coffee. | 20 |
| Cereal, 2 Eggs, Vegetable, Bread and Butter, Coffee | 25 |
| Cereal, 2 Eggs, Vegetable, Stewed Fruit, Bread and Butter, Coffee | 30 |
| 2 Eggs with Bread and Butter | 10 |
| Asparagus Tips | 15 |
| Asparagus with dressing | 15 |
| Asparagus on Toast | 15 |
| Stewed Mushrooms | 15 |
| Mushrooms on Toast | 15 |

Tables Reserved for Ladies

When ordering, please inform Waiter whether you desire dinner or one of our Miscellaneous Dishes to avoid confusion at steam table.

A LA CARTE

Soups

Cents

Served with Bread and Butter 10

Vegetables

| | |
|------------------------------------|----|
| Asparagus with Dressing (to order) | 15 |
| Asparagus on Toast | 15 |
| Asparagus Tips | 15 |
| Green Peas | 10 |
| Stewed Mushrooms | 20 |
| Mushrooms on Toast | 20 |
| Sweet Corn | 10 |

Fruit

| | |
|--------------------------|----|
| Sliced Oranges | 10 |
| Banana and Cream | 10 |
| Peaches and Cream | 10 |
| Figs and Cream | 10 |
| Dates and Cream | 10 |
| Orange and Banana | 10 |
| Pineapple | 10 |
| Apples | 10 |
| Bananas, Figs and Cream. | 10 |

Steamed Cereals

| | |
|---------------------|----|
| Whole Wheat | 10 |
| Dextrinized Oatmeal | 10 |
| Rice | 10 |

Prepared Cereals

| | |
|----------------|----|
| Grape Nuts | 10 |
| Shredded Wheat | 10 |
| Korn Crisp | 10 |
| Egg o See | 10 |
| Malta Vita | 10 |
| Appetise | 10 |

Raw Cereals and Specialities Cents

| | |
|---------------------------|----|
| Raw Strengthfude | 10 |
| Rye Flakes | 10 |
| Rolled Wheat | 10 |
| P. C. Raw Bread | 10 |
| Oat Flakes | 10 |
| P. C. Fruit Bread | 10 |

Meat Substitutes Cooked to Order

(Served with Vegetable, Bread and Butter)

| | |
|---------------------------------------|----|
| Stewed Protose | 20 |
| Stewed Nuttose | 20 |
| Macaroni Cutlet | 25 |
| Jugged Nuttose | 25 |
| Lentil Fritters | 25 |
| Savoury Cutlets | 25 |
| Minced Protose | 20 |
| Mock Chicken Cutlet | 25 |
| Nuttose and Yorkshire Pudding | 25 |
| Nuttose Rissoles | 25 |
| Nuttose Cutlets | 25 |
| Lentil Cutlet | 25 |
| Protose Cutlet | 25 |
| Savoury Rissoles | 25 |
| Lentil Croquettes | 25 |
| Rice Cutlets | 25 |
| Nuttose Ragout | 25 |

Salads to Order

| | |
|----------------------------|----|
| Lettuce and Egg | 10 |
| Tomato and Lettuce | 10 |

Stewed Fruits

| | |
|------------------------|---|
| Apple Sauce | 5 |
| Italian Prunes | 5 |
| Whole Figs | 5 |

Desserts

| | |
|----------------------------------------------|----|
| Whole Wheat Prune Pudding with Cream | 10 |
| Rice Pudding | 5 |
| Whole Wheat Date Pudding with Cream | 10 |

Pies

| | |
|---------------|---|
| Prune | 5 |
| Apple | 5 |

Sandwiches

| | |
|-----------------------|----|
| Fruit and Nut | 10 |
| Banana | 5 |
| Fig | 5 |
| Nut Butter | 5 |
| Pecan Nut | 10 |
| Apple and Nut | 10 |

D—II

| | |
|----------------------------|----|
| Vegetable | 10 |
| Plain Cheese | 5 |
| Cheese and Nut | 10 |
| Hungarian | 10 |
| Calcutta | 10 |
| Lettuce | 10 |
| Lima Beans | 10 |
| Cheese and Date | 10 |
| Date | 5 |
| Egg | 10 |
| Protose and Nut | 15 |
| Lettuce and Cheese | 10 |

Eggs

| | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Raw, Poached, Scrambled, Fried, Soft or Hard Boiled, with Bread and Butter | 15 |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|

Omelets

(With Bread and Butter)

| | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Plain | 15 |
| Pea Onion, Bean, Tomato, Cheese Celery, Corn Parsley, Banana Minced Protose | 25 |
| Mushroom, Walnut and Pecan, Orange, Protose and Jelly | 30 |

Drinks

| | |
|-------------------------------|----|
| Milk | 5 |
| Cereal Coffee | 5 |
| P. C. Egg Nogg | 10 |
| Horlick's Malted Milk | 10 |

| | |
|----------------------------|----|
| Stewed Mushrooms | 15 |
| Mushrooms on Toast | 15 |

Uncooked

Natural Food Full Course Dinner. 25 Cents

Special To-day

Full order of any of these dishes served separately if desired.

Fruit

Oranges

Physical Culture Medley or Raw Strengthfude, Raw Wheat Flakes, Raw Oat Flakes, Raw Rye Flakes with choice of Bananas, Dates, Prunes, Seedless Raisins, Figs, Nuts, or Ground Nuts.

Vegetables

Sliced Onions

Salads

Peach and Banana. Medley.

Desserts

Figs and Cream. Date Pudding.

Relishes

Olives. American Cheese.

Drinks

Lemonade. Milk.

Triscuit with Creamery or Peanut Butter, or Physical Culture Uncooked Bread, Physical Culture Egg Nogg, 5 cents extra. Grape Juice, 5 cents extra.

MISCELLANEOUS RAW FOOD DISHES

MacFadden's Raw "Strengthfudes" as used and recommended by him. Physical Culture Medley, 10 cents; Raw Strengthfude with choice of Bananas, Prunes, Dates, Figs, Seedless Raisins or Nuts, with Milk, 10 cents; with Cream, 15 cents; with beaten Raw Egg, 5 cents extra, small pitcher of Olive Oil, 3 cents.

| | |
|-----------------------------|----|
| Lettuce | 10 |
| Dates and Cream | 10 |
| Raw Fruit Pudding | 10 |
| Figs and Cream | 10 |
| Raisins and Cream | 10 |
| Mixed Nut Meats | 10 |
| Bananas and Cream | 10 |
| Raw Pound Cake | 10 |
| Pecan Nut Meats | 10 |

SPECIAL NOTICE

Arrangements can be made with the management by Private Parties or Societies for private Dinners, Suppers, or Banquets. We will try and accommodate all patrons who are on a special diet if they will kindly inform Manager a day in advance.

Another suggestive item from abroad is the following list of beverages, given by a vegetarian restaurant at Munich. In England there

does not appear to be the same demand for variety.

WHITE GRAPE WINE
(NON-ALCOHOLIC)

| | Whole Bottle. | Half- Bottle. | Glass. |
|--------------------------------------|------------------|------------------|--------|
| | s. d. | s. d. | d. |
| Riesling | 1 2 | 8 | — |
| Tokayer | 1 4 | 8 | — |
| Muscatel | 1 8 | 10 | — |
| RED GRAPE WINE | | | |
| Ingelheimer | 1 2 | 8 | — |
| Burgundy | 1 4 | 8 | — |
| Medical Muscatel | 1 10 | 1 0 | — |
| CYDER | | | |
| Apple Cyder | 6 | — | 2 |
| Borsdorfer | 1 0 | 6½ | 2 |
| Bilberry Cyder | 1 0 | — | 2 |
| ICED | | | |
| Lemonade | — | — | 1½ |
| Raspberry Wine | 1 6 | 9 | 1 |
| (Guaranteed pure) | | | |
| Murrella Wine | 1 6 | 9 | 1 |
| Soda Water | — | 1½ | — |
| Milk | — | — | 1 |
| Sour Milk | — | — | 1 |
| Boiled Milk | — | — | 1½ |
| Almond Milk | — | — | 1½ |
| HOT | | | |
| Claret Cup | — | — | 4 |
| Egg Apple Cyder | — | — | 4 |
| Natural Lemonade | — | — | 2 |
| Sieber's Apple Tea | — | — | 1½ |
| Strawberry Leaf Tea | — | — | 1½ |
| Lime Flower Tea | — | — | 1½ |
| Peppermint Tea | — | — | 1½ |
| Black Tea | — | — | 1½ |
| Tea with Cream or Lemon | — | — | 3 |
| Coffee | — | — | 2½ |
| Chocolate | — | — | 2½ |
| Cocoa | — | — | 2½ |
| Milk | — | — | 1 |

PART II

TABLE AND GENERAL SERVICE

CHAPTER I

WAITERS AND WAITRESSES

WAITING must be efficient no matter what type of catering establishment is being run. The importance of efficiency in the waiting staff cannot be over-estimated, yet too often mistaken ideas of economy prevail and untrained assistants are installed. It is a serious error. The very nature of their duties brings the waiting staff into direct communication with the customers, and it is they who in nearly every case are the active representatives of the establishment. If the waiting is incompetent the customers are inconvenienced, an indifferent or bad impression is created and the business naturally suffers. Insufficient training or lack of ability to acquire the art of waiting places the assistant at a disadvantage. Mistakes are made, there follows loss of time and confusion which generally entails wastes, breakages, and so on. Efficient and tasteful waiting, on the other hand, puts the customer at ease, he is better able to enjoy his meal, and, not being irritated by mistakes or delays, will often spend a little more, certainly will go away pleased, anxious to come back again and even to recommend the place. Then, again, the routine of the place runs more smoothly; there is less friction between the dining-room and servery or kitchen; more customers can be served with comfort in a given time; waste is lessened and breakages are reduced to a minimum. A competent waiter or waitress takes pride in performing the work to be done properly and to keep everything in perfect order. With such loyal co-operation with the management comes naturally and is a source of strength both to employer and employed.

Try to choose as your assistants people who are amiable and pleasant in manner. This is especially important in the catering trade. Many a waiter or waitress has *made* an hotel or restaurant. Intelligence is important in your servants, but when they come in actual contact with the customers pleasant manners and personality are more so; they attract the public—and rightly, for they are often if not always a sign of some excellence of character. If your waiter or waitress has this quality do not heed small defects—even a little stupidity—the public won't mind it. The writer knew recently of a waiter who was a bad accountant but transparently honest and delightfully genial. He muddled the accounts, sometimes giving wrong tickets, and had to make up the deficiencies.

A new proprietor came to the old-world house which had been for sixteen years so fitting a background for eighteenth-century "Charles." He was dismissed suddenly and disappeared—went back to his northern shire, possibly. The men asked for him—his absence was resented. Why? Why not? They liked him—that was all about it. They were annoyed; and a fortnight later the whole of a "set" who frequented the house left it. They numbered over twenty and attracted many friends. Curiously enough, they were not the old customers—they had only been coming there for a twelvemonth. But "Charles" had character and personality which, though mild, was none the less, perhaps, strong. None of us quite knows what "personality" is, but we do all know its power and attraction. It is one of the things that we do not give ourselves, Nature does it for us, and no one profits more by keeping in his pay the waiter or waitress who possesses it than does the hotel or restaurant owner.

The proprietor and the remaining waiters are still being asked, "Where's Charles?" and "Where's that red-haired waiter gone?" by old customers who come up from the country.

We have known other instances where hotels have been on the point of changing hands, and business men frequenting them have drawn up and signed documents promising their custom to waiters and waitresses who have won their respect.

The Sins of the Waiters

Choose your waiters or waitresses first, then, for their pleasantness of manner and cleanliness of appearance. When you have found them, make sure that they know how to wait. If they don't, either drill them yourself or get an old waiter at a good hotel to drill them thoroughly every day for a month or so. The sins of the waiter, bear in mind, are visited on the proprietor. As a good waiter or waitress can fill your house, so a bad one can empty it. Women make excellent waiters, but they should always first be carefully drilled, because they are less likely to have been trained to business habits than male waiters who offer themselves. At large hotels and restaurants men will continue to be employed, but there is no reason at all why women should not become the most popular at all other places of entertainment. The only thing against them is the fact that they make no attempt, as a rule, to train for the work.

This is perhaps one of the worst faults of women waiters, and they are too prone to presume on the privilege of their womanhood. They are apt to have favourites among their customers and to show it, and are otherwise rather inattentive and indifferent to their work. That is particularly noticeable in the popular tea-rooms of London. The manageress should carefully see that the older men and all new customers are not neglected for the young ones. Again, the newcomer should have rather more than less the usual attention. The rule of hospitality is that the greater the stranger the greater the attention given to him. The older guest is better able to help himself, knowing the customs of the house.

Then it is the mark of a bad waiter—generally of a waitress—to “throw the things” down before the customer without condescending to give him a glance, and to turn immediately away. This is the very essence of bad manners, and, it is to be regretted, very common in some of the shops of the multiple caterers. In fact, few of the girls in these establishments display any evidence of having had any training at all. The best of them in experience, manners and good temper appear to be sent to the more ambitious houses which these firms are opening in the West End of London. Again, we have noticed that these untrained girls do not always trouble to see whether the customer has everything he requires—the sugar, salt, pepper, etc.—or see that the coffee has not slopped into the saucer or that the cup has been properly cleaned, and that the last customer’s egg has been washed off the spoon; that the coffee or jam that a previous ill-mannered diner let fall on the table has been washed off. These little attentions are ignored with haughty indifference.

All these things the writer has seen constantly neglected in restaurants of this class. In the first-rate larger hotels, Princes, the Savoy, and the Metropole, and in the City, waiting is as good as trained men and vigilant supervision can make it. The waiters employed before the war in these hotels were mostly foreigners—and they showed what wise training could do.

British Waiters

The writer is old enough to remember, however, the excellent type of British waiter which was common in London in such houses as the Albion. He was certainly a success and is not yet extinct, Messrs. Ring and Brymer having many in their pay as may be seen at any City banquet. There is no reason why the British waiter should not come to his own once again or why the calling should not be filled by older men than in recent years. A waiter is certainly not too old even at 70. As the German waiter has left us, why should we not train our slightly wounded and physically unfit soldiers for this work? A soldier has the merit of great personal cleanliness, silence when on duty, courteous manners, and promptness in obeying orders, which are the first essentials of the trade.

Where there is no opportunity for getting your waiters or waitresses drilled, advertise for a thoroughly experienced person as head waiter or waitress and let him or her do the drilling.

Always see that you have waiters enough to prevent the customers being kept unreasonably long for their food. The older people get impatient; and in a trade which caters for young women and men who only get half an hour or an hour for lunch, many of them like and badly need a walk before returning to their desks.

Waiters and Waitresses

Naturally the type of waiter will differ with the class of establishment.

Careful selection is necessary. It would be unwise as a general rule to place a man accustomed to quick luncheon popular trade in an expensive restaurant or in an hotel desiring to attract a rich clientele. In the former not only is quickness essential, but a brisk, even a cheery manner is desirable, for the customers have to be impressed with a sense of alertness, often combined with a certain amount of good-humoured firmness. On the other hand, for the higher-class establishments, untiring vigilance and promptness of action must be accompanied by an imperturbable appearance and restful manner, the faculty of always being at hand and yet never giving the impression of obtrusiveness. Occasionally the born waiter will do well in whatever situation he finds himself, but as a rule the most successful specialise more or less consciously, and it is part of the caterer's duty to be able to select his staff according to his requirements and their capabilities. Speaking generally, training can only be really effective if commenced in early youth, for the average male is not over-receptive after that period, especially in the small matters, that then become irksome, though easy enough and absolutely essential to the perfect professional.

Waitresses and their Opportunities

The profound changes that have taken place in the world of catering during the past few years have abundantly proved how fitted women are to assume active parts in many branches of the business. This is certainly the case as regards the art of waiting, which, besides affording a good career in itself, opens up bright prospects in a great many directions. If the waitress only chooses, she can by taking an intelligent interest in her duties make these the stepping-stones to advancement in various branches of the profession. In the popular tea-rooms there are chances not only to become seniors and superintendents, but manageresses. There are opportunities for the well-educated to become cashiers and to advance to administrative duties through that channel. Or by becoming counter hands they may acquire more direct knowledge of actual catering and find profitable openings in the stores or kitchen departments. In these ways smart, painstaking girls can qualify themselves for opening tea-rooms, popular restaurants or boarding-houses of their own, either on an entirely independent footing or in partnership, matrimonial or otherwise.

Hotel work differing greatly from the above offers numerous remunerative posts which may be gained from the waitress stage. These include upper chambermaid, linen woman, housekeeper, assistant manageress, and manageress, ultimately leading up to proprietorship of public or private hotel, restaurant, boarding-house, or tea-rooms. Many of the most successful boarding-house proprietresses, especially of the seaside resort and the business town hostel types, began their careers as assistants in refreshment rooms or in hotel service. One advantage of hotel work is that it affords opportunities for more or less close association with all sorts and conditions of people coming from districts far apart, and

which enables the observant to form a good general understanding of the requirements of the public.

An opening that promises great possibilities in the future for girls qualifying themselves as waitresses lies in the direction of the new industrialism. We mean in connection with the canteens and kindred undertakings attached to factories and to business premises. Welfare work is now the rule rather than the exception in big establishments where women and young people are employed. Very generally catering forms an important branch of such work, and certainly canteens are steadily becoming of ever-increasing importance in big industrial works. Such canteens and catering departments are as a rule staffed chiefly by women, recruited partly from factory hands or their friends and partly from girls trained as waitresses or kitchen helps in refreshment rooms. The work required is far more diversified than mere serving in the canteen and kitchen routine. There is the storeroom work, and even the responsible duties of buying. Some of these posts are very well paid, the regular wages occasionally being supplemented by bonuses calculated on the takings, as an inducement to organise a service that will be popular and useful. The writer knows of one lady—a hospital matron—who gave up her work as Welfare Superintendent in one large factory to take up the control of catering in another, finding the change both remunerative and interesting. It is true that she had much travel experience and had gained a practical knowledge of catering while in charge of hospitals in many odd places. These posts are the plums of this branch of the profession, and although so far they have generally been filled by women who have qualified in catering and kindred business, there is no reason why candidates should not be recruited from the ranks. Keen management with sound business system is required, as plain but good cooking, ample portions, low prices with quick and clean service are demanded. It is essential that a policy based on these demands, yet having some relation to commercial conditions, should animate the whole staff.

This canteen and factory catering work, of course, differs in many particulars from ordinary commercial business and also in one establishment from another. But while it is not desired to make profits out of the undertaking it is usually expected to cover expenses. This term expenses has a somewhat elastic meaning, as it may be made to include cost of heating, interest and sinking fund on equipment, and all wages, or only part of these or none of them. In some places little more is provided than a room with tables and benches, with an attendant in charge to supply hot water and look after the hot-closet or oven wherein the factory hands may warm up their own victuals. As a rule, however, much more elaborate arrangements are made. The meals commonly supplied are breakfasts, midday dinners, and teas. These are essentially rush hours. In some establishments all refreshments are served in one room only. In others there are separate rooms for women and girls, for heads of departments and occasionally for clerical and office staff and for principals. Very generally the only attendance in the common refectory is at the service counter and for

clearing away dirty plates, cups, etc., the customers fetching their portions themselves. But even when this is the practice some supervision is necessary and at least partial attendance will be required for the officials' quarters. If this branch of catering requires less intricate organisation than the regular trading concern, it certainly demands as close attention to detail and enables the ordinary assistant to have a better chance of gaining a personal knowledge by experience of the whole routine from bottom to top.

We have dwelt at length on this subject because of its own interest, but more particularly because it undoubtedly offers fair promise for pains-taking waitresses without capital but who desire to remain and rise in their chosen path of life, one which, while not offering the prizes that may be won in business enterprises, holds out good prospects of a secure competency.

However, these posts, like all others worth having, can only be attained, or at all events in the long run can only be retained, by the efficient. The waitress with ambitions must make up her mind to go through a period of apprenticeship to acquire proficiency through training. She must also determine to take a real interest in her business, not content to carry out her immediate duties with credit to herself and the establishment she serves, but anxious to understand what goes before and after. That is to say, she ought to make a point of becoming not only an expert waitress but to gain knowledge of the fundamentals of catering—the selection and purchase of provisions, the routine work of store-keeping, the art of the kitchen and the still-room, and some insight into the duties of the cashier and office staff. This may appear to be asking a great deal from a young girl, but it is only those capable of such determination and concentration who achieve anything like success. The reward accruing from such service is quite as attractive as from many other spheres of business.

It is only too apparent that the majority of girls who become waitresses in tea-rooms, cafés, refreshment places and even in the more expensive establishments, regard their occupation as a temporary means of gaining a livelihood. A lack of real interest in their work is very noticeable, thus making it irksome to themselves and not seldom to their superintendents and their customers as well. Yet experience in clubs, in better-class restaurants and hotels, has proved that girls can qualify themselves for the performance of the more exacting duties of their calling. It is a fact that girls can be trained at a later age and in a shorter time than boys, and they possess qualities that should render them peculiarly fitted for the duties.

At present the more common method of entering the calling is by means of individual training in a catering establishment, though the housewifery and domestic classes and continuation schools give some preliminary training. The really ambitious girl is well advised to commence as near the beginning of things domestic as possible, that is, in scullery work. After all, that important lady, the hospital matron, had to graduate as sister, as nurse, and in her novitiate had to undertake such

menial duties as scrubbing floors, cleansing bandages, washing up and preparing food for invalids. That is because the nursing profession is thoroughly organised and a regular training insisted upon. The same rule should apply to the catering business, and aspirants on entering it should go through the various branches stage by stage. We should then have an efficient body of waitresses, as useful to themselves as to their employers.

Actual training can be advantageously supplemented by keen observation when travelling, and by the study of all available periodicals and books dealing closely or remotely with the business. In this way not only is knowledge acquired, but a habit of memorising and comparing cultivated.

CHAPTER II

WAITERS: TRAINING AND DUTIES

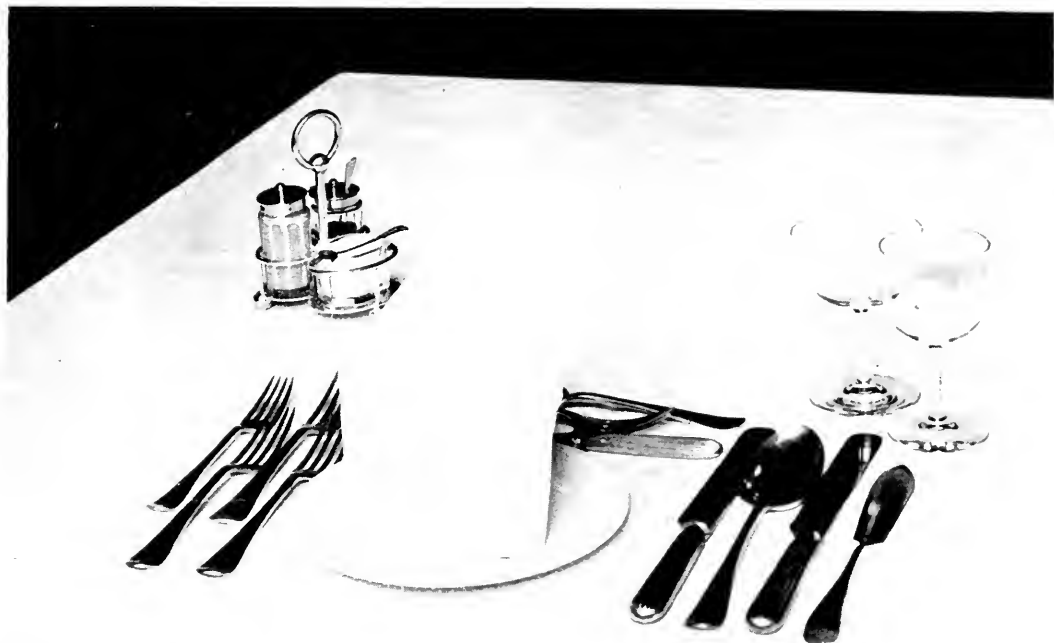
THE position and training of the waiter in any country gives the measure of the real position of catering in that country. Up to about the fifth or sixth decade of last century the British waiter, although often "a character," was a well-trained, efficient member of society who took his duties seriously, usually aspired to become "mine host," or the proprietor of some superior boarding-house or set of "chambers." Then through various causes there came a change. Few lads suitable for the purpose could be induced to enter upon the apprenticeship stage of the calling. Consequently competent British waiters became scarce, and ultimately were rarely seen outside a few old-established, high-class public establishments and clubs. When found the "genuine article" was hard to equal; impossible to surpass. He was ready, resourceful, tactful, willing without servility. But there was not enough of him to go round. This state of affairs was hastened and aggravated by a decided change which came over our national catering, a reform which came from the outside, directed by the French, Swiss, Italians, and then the Germans.

Continental Systems

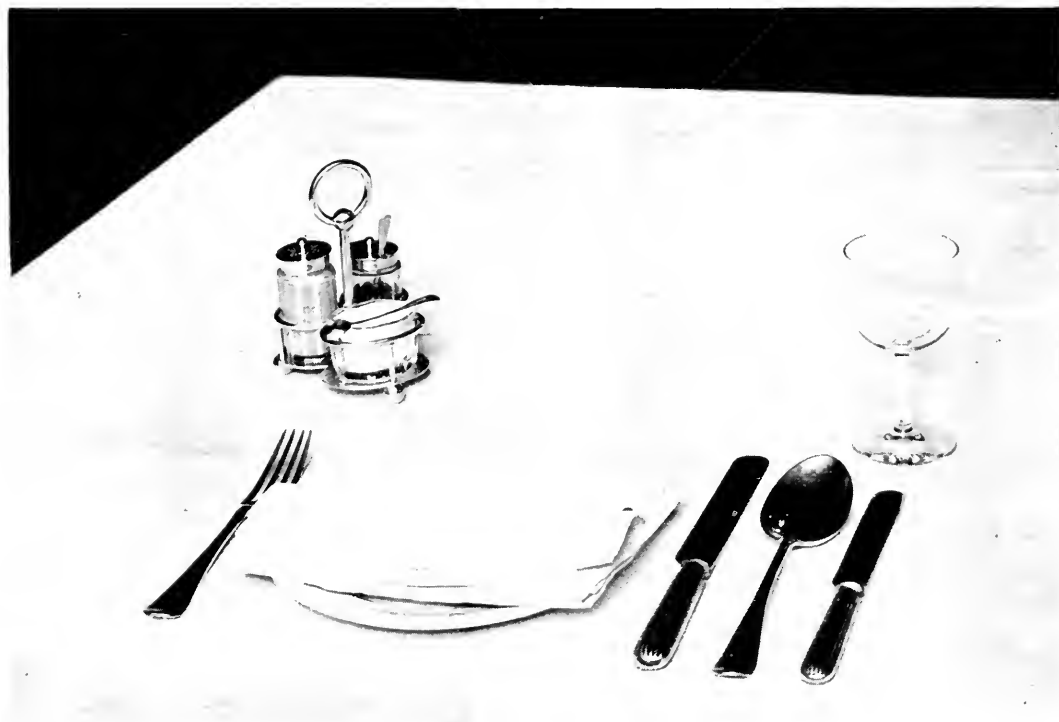
It would be equally useless and unfair to indulge in diatribes against the foreign waiter, but there is an advantage in attempting a careful analysis of the reasons why he captured and so long held the monopoly of the trade. By doing this it may be possible to enlighten and persuade the public to take up a business which for over half a century has been systematically neglected by the middle-class worker.

We will deal in the first instance with the restaurant trade, which dates back to the early "sixties" of last century. The growth of this trade is almost entirely due to the enterprise of the Italian, French and Swiss, by the introduction of essentially Continental restaurants and French cookery, the superiority and novelty of which made very ready headway over the old-fashioned style of catering with its limited choice of dishes. At the present day the habit of "dining out" has become an institution not only in high-class but in popular-priced restaurants, where people can dine amidst luxurious surroundings, and enjoy excellent music, at the same or even lower prices than were in vogue in the bygone days of the "eating-house" of unpretentious equipment and indifferent cookery.

In order to carry out the Continental style in its entirety, it was almost necessary to employ Continental waiters, as the introduction of the French *carte* was not understood by the British waiter, who, appar-



FULL COURSE DINNER COUVERT.



ently, for various reasons made no effort to master it, or in other ways to adapt himself to the then new conditions of employment. Many points did not appeal to the British character, some of which were keenly resented—such as the “Tronc” system of payment, which obliges the waiter to pool his tips, the sharing out being left more or less to the whims or sense of fairness of the *maître d’hôtel* or proprietor; or again, the system of paying no wages, which may even degenerate into the diametrically opposed system of the employee having to pay the proprietor for the privilege of serving his customers. All this compels the waiter to depend entirely, or practically so, on the gratuities he may receive. As these customs were accepted by Continental waiters, the managers found it easier to employ foreigners, especially as they had been soundly trained as youngsters and were more or less masters of two or three languages. When conditions of employment were improved, matters had gone so far that the supply of British waiters had dwindled until less than a hundredth part of the number required was forthcoming, and those were trained either for a few special restaurants (in London chiefly to be found in the City), clubs, or the cheaper form of refreshment house.

The reform in the hotel world only accentuated this state of affairs, for when large amounts of capital were invested in hotels Continental experts were brought over to manage departments, and they, naturally enough, desired to have their own trained subordinates. So waiters came over in shoals, and then they started their own clubs and unions over here, which acted as recruiting agencies. It was recognised that, besides the many opportunities for permanent settling in Great Britain, it was well for all ambitious youths entering the catering trades to acquire some knowledge of English and English methods, the English being such constant travellers and good customers to Continental restaurants and hotels.

Technical Instruction

The writer has endeavoured to point out why there is a dearth of British waiters. As we have seen, the reasons are complex. Let us examine these more closely, for there are numerous lucrative positions available, giving constant employment and entailing by no means hard work. Yet these prove unattractive to British youths because of the prejudice prevalent, justly originating from the former undesirable conditions of employment mentioned. As we have said, not the least of these is the system of “tipping,” to which in many cases the waiter has had solely to look for his livelihood. This, while it introduces too great an element of chance and compares unfavourably with a regular wage for fixity of income, nevertheless has proved in most cases more remunerative than the average wage of most trades. Among other grievances, last but not least, has been the question of the hours of work, which prior to the Shop Hours Act gave the waiter very little leisure time. It must be remembered that this is a matter of the first consideration, and if it be desired that the British youth should take up the profession of waiting,

his desire to spend a fair portion of the day in his home or in association with his friends must be reasonably met.

Of the British waiter's ability and aptitude for the work there can be no doubt. The writer has no hesitation in saying that the British waiter is in nowise behind his foreign compeer in these particulars, and is in some ways superior, that is always provided he has been properly trained.

It is this training that has proved the difficulty. For the past 12 or 15 years some concerted attempt has been made to revive apprenticeship for lads as waiters in hotels and restaurants, but the work is very slow and the movement in this direction far from general. So in 1910 a number of London caterers, backed by the Universal Cookery and Food Association, took active steps to start a technical school for the training of waiters, and this was done, by way of supplementing the School for Boy Cooks, by the London County Council. The school has been a success, its chief difficulty being in securing an adequate number of pupils. No doubt this prejudice will be overcome. After all, an important point to bear in view is that this is not a blind alley occupation, but one offering illimitable possibilities for advancement. It is safe to say that for a hard-working, diligent and ambitious youth it affords infinitely greater prospects of promotion than can be found in most other trades. The aid or *commis* stage is merely the stepping-stone to the position of waiter, head waiter, superintendent, manager, and in many cases proprietor, and in no other business is this steady progression exemplified to such a degree.

Qualifications

A qualified waiter must in the first place possess good manners and address; politeness in its truest form, not servility, is expected from him; the better his education and the greater his linguistic attainments the easier the task for him and the greater the chance of promotion.

A thorough knowledge of the bill of fare and French technical culinary phrases is essential to his employment in any high-class establishment.

Honesty, sobriety, cleanliness, common sense, and the exercise of tact should form part of his character, not of his training; qualifications which are not only necessary to his success, but are put to the test more often than in other professions.

The course of a waiter's training should comprise every duty he may be called upon to perform in actual business, from the wiping of a plate to the tactful service of an *à la carte* or a set dinner. The duration of the actual training for a lad fresh from school must be at least one year in order that he may acquire the style, quickness, and confidence expected and required from him in business. This brief period will not be sufficient to turn out a full-fledged waiter, but should give the lad a thorough knowledge of the groundwork of his duties.

Duties, Pay, and Prospects

The duties of a waiter consist of waiting at table, and the necessary

preparation of the room and tables. In many high-class establishments his duties do not go beyond these. They do not even entail the washing of a glass, for there exist departments devoted to cleaning only, such as the plate room, knife room, glass room, etc. In smaller establishments, however, many of the duties devolve on the waiter in a greater or less degree; but it is safe to strike an average by defining the waiter's duties as preparation of the dining-room and the equipment which he requires for his table service, with the exception of plates, and knives, for even in the most unpretentious establishments these are cleaned by porters. In hotels waiters are also placed in charge of the service rooms, in large houses usually one to each floor, and have to attend upon guests in the bed- or private sitting-rooms, serving breakfasts, luncheons, dinners and all refreshments. There may be a special staff of waiters for this, or the duties may be taken turn and turn about with the dining-room staff. So it will be seen that his occupation is not only cleanly, but cannot come under the definition of heavy work. However, the full extent of the waiter's efficiency is not measured by these minor duties, but by his capabilities and knowledge as a salesman at the table and his ability to give his customer every satisfaction in the way of quick and correct service.

The earnings of waiters vary to such an extent that it is difficult to strike an average. Moreover, the wages are still regulated in most places by the amount of gratuities which a waiter is capable of earning in any particular establishment. For example, in most London West-End restaurants the wages are merely nominal or nothing at all; the waiter depends entirely on his tips, which fluctuate according to the amount of business done or the position of his tables.

This is not quite such a hardship as it appears on paper. We may quote as an instance of fair play one well-known establishment in Piccadilly where gratuities are prohibited; the proprietors have found it necessary, in order to obtain experienced restaurant waiters, to pay them £2 weekly, plus a commission on sales above a certain average amount of takings. This, then, may be taken as the average wage, for less than which a restaurant waiter will not work. But there are plenty of waiters who earn up to £350 a year; on the other hand there are some who do not earn £2 a week.

Commis or junior assistant waiters are paid from 12s. 6d. to 20s. weekly, according to the class of establishment and the opportunities of earning gratuities.

Restaurant superintendents' wages vary from £3 to £4, with a liberal food and drink allowance.

Dealing with hotels, wages are an item of greater importance than in restaurants simply because gratuities are neither so abundant nor so frequent, consequently a waiter has to look to his wages as his principal asset.

Coffee-room and sitting-room waiters are paid from 10s. to 20s. weekly, according to ability and age, with food and lodging. Here again it is impossible to strike an average of tips, as the systems and class of

establishment vary even to a greater degree than in restaurants, and the gratuities vary from shillings to pounds.

Head waiters are more fortunate. Their opportunities where the system of allowing them to present the customers' bills is in vogue are immeasurable. The writer personally knows two head waiters who followed each other in the same hotel, one of the largest on the South Coast, whose earnings averaged £1,000 a year. Naturally these are rare exceptions, but a safe average of £200 a year can be drawn for these fortunate individuals.

The next and final step in the ladder of promotion is managership, barring actual proprietorship, which is by no means uncommon. The writer can personally name half a dozen of his acquaintances whom he has known as waiters, who now manage their own establishments, and needless to say they are of German origin. This fact is not mentioned in order to vilify them, but merely to point out the opportunities which exist in the catering business for competent, earnest men. Their nationality is mentioned merely to point out that there were no English waiters on the spot to seize these opportunities. A typical case may be given by way of example. "H" went to a South Coast hotel as coffee-room waiter at 15s. weekly. In the course of time he became the head waiter. The proprietor happening to die without issue, the house was put up for sale. "H" obtained a loan, and with the addition of his savings bid for and bought the establishment, which after a very few years became his own, free of mortgage. Had Britishers been encouraged to take to this business one can safely venture to say that they would have been just as capable of taking advantage of these opportunities, which are not opportunities of bygone days, but exist even to a great extent at the present day.

Reverting to the wages that are paid to managers, these necessarily depend on the size of the establishment and can be quoted as anything from £150 to as much as £1,200 per annum, and in a few exceptional cases rising to over £5,000.

Many and peculiar temptations beset the path of the waiter. He should remember that honesty and sobriety are his chief sheet anchors. He should be honest to himself, to his employers and to his customers, and remain a strict abstainer from alcoholic indulgence of all kinds during business hours. If he does this he will prove himself worthy of being placed in positions of trust, which men of weaker character would not be given the opportunity to occupy, and certainly could not fulfil. He should also determine to abstain from the fascinations of betting on horse-races. Fortune may favour the gambler at first, but it is true of such money, "Easy come, easy go"; it never enriches. Waiters should be on their guard against this, because there are circumstances in their occupation which make the waiter a particular and easy prey of the bookmakers' touts and the injudicious customers' turf talk. Now, apart from all moral principles, this is not only "a fool's game," but it takes away the victim's mind from his duties, and so decreases his business

efficiency, destroys his ambition for promotion and ultimately leads to his impoverishment or ruin.

Too much stress cannot be laid on the necessity for the waiter's cleanliness of person and dress ; a strict attention to these matters not only enhances his own self-respect but greatly increases that of the customer for him.

There is one other matter the waiter should remember—" Politeness costs nothing "—except at times an effort of self control ; and, it may be added, it is very often profitable.

Given ordinary ability, strict attention to duty, accompanied by the following out of the foregoing advice, the young aspirant cannot fail to make his services appreciated, and so make his mark. Then he will never regret having taken up the profession of waiting.

The System of "Tipping"

Tipping is a topic of perennial controversy, it may be viewed from so many different aspects. Morally, no argument can uphold it. However, one thing remains certain, it can never be abolished except by the determined co-operation of tipper, tippee and proprietor. A universal decision on the part of proprietors to pay their staff a wage equivalent and in proportion to the number of hours worked, as in other trades, would be a step in the right direction. Speaking generally this would mean an all-round increase in the charges. Obviously the reform will be slow and uncertain if undertaken in isolated cases, for such isolated action is viewed with hostility on the part of the majority.

Where the "living wage and no tipping" has been undertaken, it is claimed to have been a success ; but such instances can in no way be accepted as a final answer, because it unsettles the labour market so far as waiters are concerned and encourages transgression on the part of individual and usually selfish customers. Until generally adopted "non-tipping" experiments cannot be claimed as a social revolution.

Morally it would raise the servant to a higher social status, and for that reason should be welcomed by him. At the same time it must be recognised as extremely doubtful whether he would ever be paid so much as he at present earns by the system. On this account the majority of waiters themselves are against any alteration, and are content to leave the moral aspect in abeyance.

On the other hand it is argued that the evil, if evil it be, would be difficult to eradicate, for it would be idle to deny that there exist many arguments in favour of nominal wages *plus* "tipping," when the individual requirements are considered. So it would be a matter of great difficulty to arrive at a universal agreement ; indeed, in view of the fact that alteration would be bound to raise the charges, the benefits looked for would be nullified.

There are, however, certain objectionable features of the present system which could be removed with great benefit to all concerned—such as the charge for attendance found on many hotel bills. It is

apparent that the customer is here obliged to pay the servant's wages and is expected likewise to tip him. Comment is needless. When these and similar features are removed one of the principal objections to the system will be gone. It is doubtful whether anybody really objects to pay for services rendered. What is objected to is to pay persons who have not rendered any service, but are only fulfilling the work of the establishment, and who by custom or inadequate wages seem to expect a gratuity, such as the "boots," liftman, etc. A line must be drawn somewhere, and it is for the proprietor to take this matter seriously in hand and eliminate the bad traits, and so legitimise a system which has only been too readily abused by both proprietor and servant.

Many methods have been introduced to modify or regularise "tipping." The most common "Tronc" system is for all tips to be pooled, the amount being shared out weekly or monthly on some pre-arranged scale. Usually the *commis* take one share, junior waiters two, seniors three, and head waiters anything from five to ten shares. Too often, however, the head waiter pays a stipulated regular fee to his *commis* and junior waiters, keeping the lion's share for himself with an uncertain "bonus" at the end of a season or a quarter. This is bad for all concerned. Still worse is it when the proprietor takes the contents of the Tronc, dividing anything from one-third to two-thirds in an agreed ratio among his staff. "Every man for himself" is better than the above plans.

Where the "No Tips" or, more politely, "No Gratuities Allowed to Attendants," plan prevails the management sometimes endeavours to placate the staff and salve the consciences of customers by placing collecting boxes in more or less conspicuous places marked "Staff Holiday Fund," "Depôt Benevolent Fund," "Attendants' Sick Fund," or some such legend. This is most common in light refreshment establishments staffed by waitresses.

Occasionally wages plus profit bonuses have been tried. One of these profit-sharing schemes in America was described as follows in the columns of *Food and Cookery* :

"The amount increases with each year of service, being ten per cent. of the monthly wage for the first year and ten per cent. additional for each succeeding year. The new scheme was conveyed to the staff in the following notice :

"In closing the year the management has adopted the plan of a division of profits to employees whose term of continuous service is one full year or more.

"Your service since _____ entitles you to _____
 _____ which amount I enclose, with the compliments of the season.' "

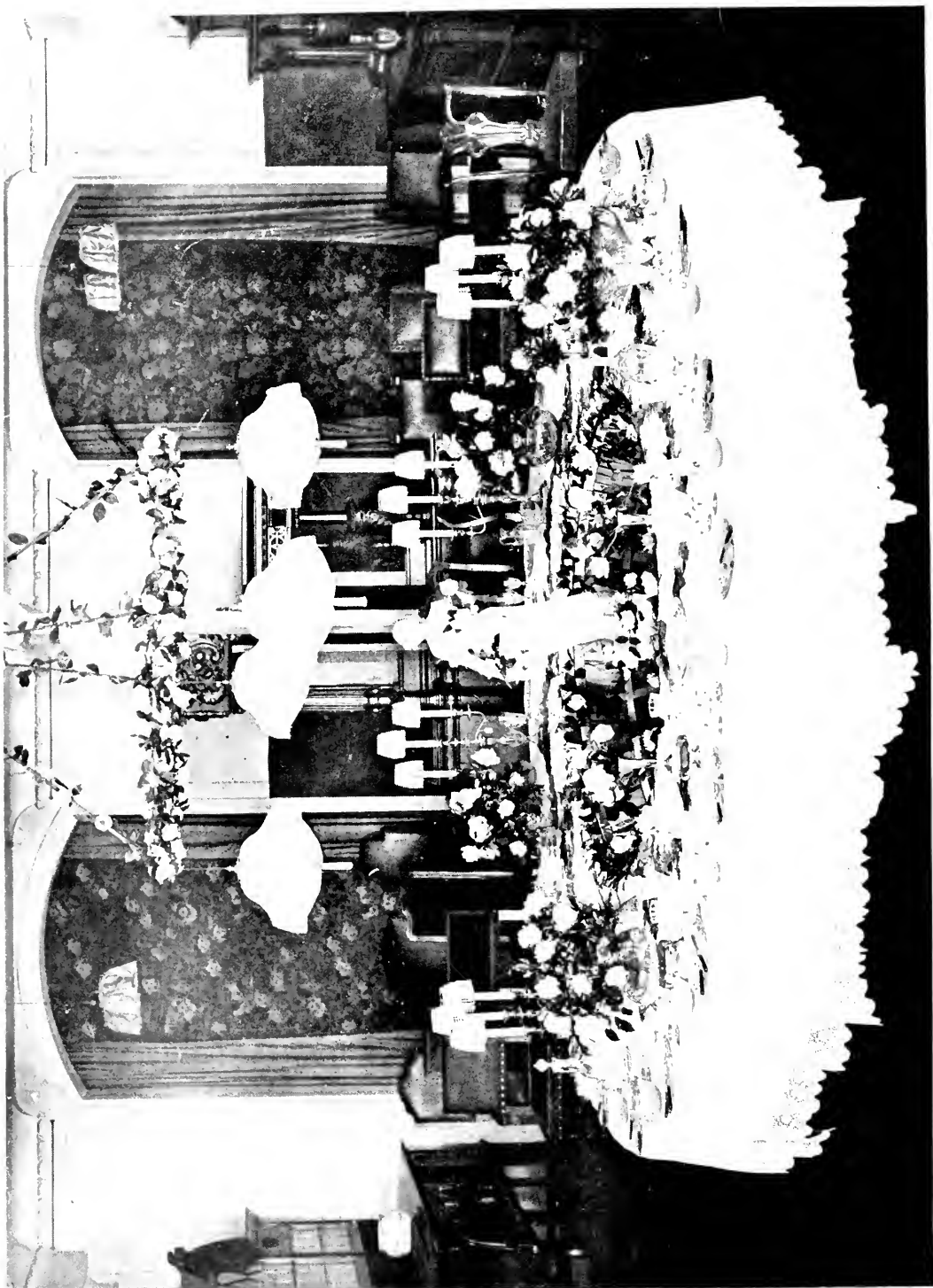
Technical Directions for Table Service

The rules of table service, unlike the laws of the Medes and Persians, are apt to be altered to suit circumstances, but a few recognised rules to cover all kinds of table service may be useful.



TABLE DECORATION.
An Opal Table.

GALA BANQUET TABLE.



(1) First and foremost quietness and quickness of movement are essential, combined with an intelligent anticipation of the customer's requirements.

(2) A plate should be put on the table and a dish passed on the left of a guest, providing the disposition of the seats permits this. It is the correct thing to take off a plate from the right, but any transgression as to the side of convention in order to avoid unnecessary disturbance to the customers is permissible.

(3) All beverages, in view of the fact that the glasses are placed on the right, should be served from the right. This includes coffee. With regard to the serving of the latter, sugar first, then hot milk if required, and lastly coffee is the rotation of serving.

(4) Finger bowls should be served with any article in the eating of which the guest may have to soil his fingers. For instance, asparagus, green artichokes, sweets and fruit.

(5) Stem glasses should be held by the stem, and tumblers at the base. Glasses should never be carried in the hand, but on trays.

(6) The waiter's cloth should be an indispensable aid in the hands of a waiter and not an encumbrance. It should be rolled up unostentatiously in the hands of the waiter, and not unfolded until he actually requires it. When in use it is designed to prevent unnecessary contact of the hand with the plates or dishes, and, incidentally, to facilitate the handling of hot dishes and plates. It is hardly necessary to mention that the waiter's cloth should be scrupulously clean in order that every article placed on the table may be wiped with it; that under no circumstances should it be placed under the arm, but when not in use it may be laid across the fore-arm.

(7) **French Table d'Hôte and Banqueting Service.**—This service should be carried out with military precision, each waiter starting his service simultaneously. It can be worked by a single or double service. In the first case a waiter works a service of seven to eight couverts by himself; in the latter a *chef*-waiter and *commis* generally work a service of ten couverts; the *chef* passes dishes and takes off used plates and passes supplementary adjuncts to the dishes, such as sauces, salads, etc.

In both services wine butlers are necessary, and twenty to thirty couverts are allotted to each.

The waiter's attitude in handing a dish should be natural, the legs kept together and stiff, the body and arms supple, and the right hand placed at ease on his back. The dish should be held in such a position close to the plate as to enable the guest to help himself with ease. Helping should always be left to the customer to do, as he generally becomes an annoyed though passive objector when helped by the waiter to articles he may not fancy, or of which he does not wish to partake.

The hors-d'œuvres are passed round on trays. The soup is served from the service tables. Every other course should be disjointed or dished up in such a manner that the guest may help himself from the dish without difficulty.

Every article, with the exception of decorations and glasses in use, or to be used, including bread-crumbs, should be removed before serving dessert.

(8) **Fixed-Price Meals and à la Carte Service.**—These meals are served between specified hours and at separate tables, each party of guests having their own table.

A *chef*-waiter and a *commis* to each set of tables is an absolute necessity to the carrying out of this service, in order that the *chef* may give his undivided attention to the guests by not being compelled to leave his tables, the *commis* fetching everything he requires.

In the case of small parties the hors-d'œuvres are placed on the table and in the case of parties of over four they should be handed round.

The soup is served from the sideboard. Every other dish, except highly decorative ones, should be served out on plates from the sideboard after being "presented" at the table, *i.e.*, shown at a respectful distance so that the decorative beauty of the dish may not be lost to the host and guests; words are unnecessary when doing this, and only a nod of acknowledgment on the part of the host is usual.

Care should be taken to arrange every article tastefully on the plate, accompanied by the garniture. Supplementary sauces should be passed round and not put on the plate by the waiter. The table should be kept as unencumbered as possible of all unnecessary or used articles. Before coffee is served everything except flowers must be removed, a clean serviette laid on the table, and coffee cups and saucers placed on small plates and a match stand on the table and coffee then served.

(9) **The Wine Service.**—In serving wines when the cork is drawn the mouth of the bottle should be carefully wiped with a cloth. The waiter should first pour out a few drops in the host's glass, then fill the guests', finally serving the host in a clean glass, removing the first one.

Clean glasses should be given for each separate bottle of wine, as this avoids corkage troubles. When serving iced champagne standing in the ice bucket, a serviette should be tied round the neck of the bottle to prevent the dripping of water from the bottle on the table or guests. Old port should always be served strained and decanted to prevent "crust" troubles, but the original bottle and cork should be shown to the customer.

It is not necessary to remark that wines should be served at the proper temperature, but this comes within the province of the cellarman and with the exception of taking the chill off claret the waiter's duties end here with reference to this matter.

(10) Guests' glasses should be kept replenished, but in view of the moderate drinking now usual, when a guest only partly empties his glass, it should not be refilled except on request.

CHAPTER III

WAITERLESS RESTAURANTS

MANY attempts have been made to replace the waiter altogether. Such efforts have not always been restricted to the cheapest class of establishments, though it is true that the greater number and more serious attempts have been made in such places.

The systems introduced to replace orthodox human assistance may be divided into two categories—(1) Self Help and (2) Mechanical Help.

Self Help.—In some restaurants there are no waiters or waitresses but merely servers behind the counters, who are in direct communication with the kitchens and stillrooms. In such cases customers are provided with bills of fare. Having taken a seat they approach the counter and ask for any dish they may desire. Cold meats, and such items as may be served direct from the hot plates or steam ovens, are handed over at once. Others are called for from the kitchen or stillroom. The portions are handed to the customer, who usually pays for each item as taken. On leaving the counter the customer passes by baskets filled with knives, forks, and spoons, takes what he or she requires, and goes to the table to enjoy the meal. Bread may be obtained at the counter, or may be given free and is then to be found on the tables ; as are also salt, pepper, mustard, vinegar, oil and sauces. In some cases, customers are expected to take back their plates and accessories to a clearing-up counter. In others girls or lads are employed to clear away and to keep the tables clean.

This system is necessarily rough and only suited to the cheapest custom. Exception must be made, however, as regards quick lunch establishments, where the extensive counters at which customers stand or sit, are supplemented by a few tables or a kind of “ blind counter ” or broad shelf affixed to the opposite wall. In such places usually attendance is reduced to the minimum.

Sometimes at these places a fixed charge of sixpence or more is made and the customer has the free range of a number of dishes containing sandwiches, sandwich rolls and perhaps a few snacks. Drinks are paid for separately. The idea is that while some customers may eat far more than they pay for, others eat less, the average being in favour of the house. This sometimes proves quite a success in a business neighbourhood, where men may rush in to eat one or two diminutive fish sandwiches and go out again. Even in such places someone will have to be in charge of the beverages, and a lad or two must be there to keep everything tidy.

With judicious care this system may be introduced advantageously in connection with popular “ gala catering,” where a not too rough element has to be catered for. By this means the difficulty of securing the extra “ occasional ” help is overcome. But though economies may be realised

it must be remembered that the system minimises the possibilities of extra profits. Its application is, therefore, very limited in range.

The opening of the National Restaurants in London and the Provinces under the Ministry of Food to some extent popularised the system, showing its possibilities and its drawbacks. Large crowds visited the places from 12 to 1.30 and again between 3 and 5, so that at many of them it was necessary to regulate admission. Even when this was done much inconvenience was experienced, though apparently it had no deterrent effect upon the patrons, who flocked in day after day. One of the principal inconveniences arose from the fact that no one was permitted to reserve a place at any particular table. The patron went to the serving counter, chose what was required, collected whatever was wanted in the way of forks, spoons, and knives, and then sought for a vacant chair at one or other of the tables. If a second course was required, the patron had to rise and go and fetch it from the counter. But there was no guarantee that on return he or she would not find the old seat occupied, and a fresh search have to be made. One or two of a party acting as waiters for the rest was discouraged, so that even patrons who went early in a party, if they partook of a fairly complete meal, soon got dispersed. No doubt these rules were introduced in the busy depots to avoid all semblance of favouritism, and to ensure patrons securing what refreshments they required with as little delay as possible. It is not conducive to comfort. However, this particular phase is by no means necessary to the system. The reservation of tables or chairs can well be permitted if the room is properly supervised.

As is shown above a certain amount of help is provided besides the servers behind the counters, the used plates, cups, forks, etc., being removed by lads or girls and the tables kept tidy by them. There is no reason why this should not be slightly extended, some of them being given control of narrow two or three-decker dinner wagons for the supply of beverages, for it is these which give the greatest trouble to the self-helpers. One shelf could be reserved for baskets containing forks, spoons, knives and bread. Definite quantities of beverages and bread should be supplied to the servers in charge of the wagons, who would collect the price of every item delivered, and account for the supplies after each rush hour.

Mechanical Help.—As for mechanical help, we see it applied in two widely different ways.

The slot automatic supply machines appeared to offer great possibilities in catering for the public. These machines are a success in supplying chocolate and sweets of various kinds. Some of these are even to be found in catering establishments. It was thought that the idea could be vastly developed, and in due course fairly large machines were built which served out plates of cold meat, patties, bowls of soup, rolls, cold and hot beverages. Usually bowls, cups and glasses are stacked on shelves, and the customer having taken one of these and inserted the prescribed coin or coins in the machine, draws out the measured quantity of liquid required. Viands are generally delivered packed in grease-proof paper or non-absorbent

cardboard dishes. Endless variety is possible in this way, and the only attendance necessary is for the removal of dirty cups, glasses, bowls, paper and broken victuals, and the replacing of supplies. Quite elaborate Quick Luncheon Automatic restaurants have been opened, but though successful on the Continent and to some extent in America, they have not found favour in these islands.

Of mechanical contrivances to save labour and make service run smoothly there are many, ranging from most simple to the quite intricate. Among the commonly used aids may be included lifts (from kitchens below or above) and ordinary dinner wagons. These may range from a two or three-decker on wheels, the shelves provided with raised edges, to contrivances provided with sunk hot-water dishes fitted with pivoted turn-over covers, in fact the old "roast" carving tables. Elaborately fitted tea-tables can be made on this principle.

With the assistance of these one waiter can do the work of at least three; they can be managed by youths or girls or even by the guests themselves.

More ambitious mechanical services have been introduced by eccentric hosts from time to time. Thus in one case the dining-room may be provided with a trap door, through which the table appears properly laden for the first course; then disappears to be cleared and comes up again with the next course. In other instances a "dumb" waiter travels round the table on rails, each guest helping himself and charging the "waiter" with "empties." One well-known engineer had an electric tramway service down the middle of his table, the dishes coming direct from the kitchen on the train, which took back the "empties." All these are mere fancies of little practical value to the caterer, except as suggestive notions when some person with more money than good taste requires a surprise party.

However, a deliberate attempt in this way on commercial lines has been tried in the United States, where Mr. John F. Daschner, a Cleveland *maitre d'hotel*, introduced a waiterless dining-room service. A repast in this curious establishment was thus described in the *American Hotel Life*.

"Here is a picture that will be a reality in Cleveland and will give this city the most unique restaurant in the world.

"You enter the beautiful restaurant. The tables and table cloths are the same as in any other first-class restaurant. Head waiter receives us and asks us: 'For how many do you wish a table?' 'For two,' we say. He brings us to a nice table for two and this table happens to be number sixteen. The head waiter lays down the bill of fare, marks on it 'number sixteen,' to correspond with our table number, and 'two' in the space marked 'Number of Guests.' He also leaves a little souvenir pencil with the advertisement of the house on it. We proceed to read the bill of fare, mark our selection with the pencil, discover on the back of the bill of fare a description and explanation to press the button with our right hand for whatever we wish.

"We attach our card in a little menu-holder in front of us and press the button. Lo! the centre part of the table with the bill of fare goes down; we look into the opening; nothing can be seen because a screen automatically shuts like a kodak shutter and closes the opening, so nothing can fall through.

"Before we are over our surprise the dish ordered appears in less than one minute, and we commence eating. Everything goes so nicely, prompt, and with dispatch. Our bill of fare is a check also consecutively numbered. The dishes checked and selected by us were checked below. The bread and butter, ice-water question, and perfectly clean linen are well taken care of also. The serving station is near by the kitchen below, we were told afterwards, which accounts for the quick service. Special plates with compartments took care of the meat and vegetables. We repeated the performance, ordered some dessert, and promptly our dishes were removed and the dessert order appeared in front of us. When we finished we took the bill of fare, which proved to be our check, and paid the items checked thereon at the cashier's desk. We dined comfortably, were served with dispatch, the food was hot, wholesome, nicely prepared, and generous portions were served. We were well pleased.

"We were served in the waiterless dining-room."

Whether this has any chance of wide application we leave to our readers to decide, but it is doubtful whether it would be any more economical than ordinary service in the long run.

CHAPTER IV

FLORAL DECORATIONS IN HOTELS

Plants and Flowers for Rooms and Tables

WHO is not attracted by the wealth of greenery and flowering plants used in hotels abroad? In the courtyard are tubs of evergreens and ferns; in the windows boxes and hanging baskets of flowering plants. The exterior smiles a welcome. It is not until we reach the tables in the restaurant that the attraction pales, and there we find that the use of cut flowers is not so well understood as with us. We spend lavishly at this point, but omit or seldom think about the exterior. A wiser plan is to consider both, yet to do so with discretion. There is no need for lavish spending, but attractive decoration where it is fresh and natural is by itself an advertisement and a recommendation. The scent of green leaves is always grateful and refreshing, and far more pleasant as a rule than the perfume of flowers. Flowering plants, too, are often more pleasing than cut flowers. There is something interesting even to the casual stranger in seeing them grow and flourish, while careful attention to them seems to carry with it the assurance that the same care is given to everything else. Thus the appearance of prosperity that well-kept trees and plants create easily becomes a veritable reality.

Certain of our better-class hotels make a great display during the season of rambler roses and climbing plants for hall and vestibule decoration. Where the walls and woodwork are white, the soft green and rose shades are peculiarly fresh and dainty. Where there are columns the pots may be grouped at the base while tubs hold evergreen shrubs in the entrance and on balconies. As these are not growing *sur place*, considerable expense and trouble is involved in keeping them in perfect condition. Indeed, the chief trouble of the floral decoration is the most unavoidable one of draught. Currents of air through lobbies and halls are inimical to the health of even quite hardy plants, much more so the hothouse-grown variety of the rambler rose and other blooms. Draught causes a withering and makes the leaves shrivel up and fall off. Copious watering is resorted to, but only adds to the trouble. The only way to lessen it is to arrange the decoration so as to avoid these draughts as much as possible and to screen the plants wherever it can be done. It is not air or cold that harms plants; it is draught and neglect.

Marketing

It is one person's work to attend to the plants for hall, room and outside decoration, apart from the arrangement of the cut flowers for the tables, in an hotel of quite modest dimensions. In large establishments at least two people will be kept fully occupied with this work, since it in-

cludes buying in the wholesale market and some amount of making-up. In large hotels, too, a window at the entrance is kept filled for the sale of buttonholes and sprays, while ability to make up bouquets and posies on demand is expected. The buying involves early morning visits to Covent Garden or other markets, and where this is not possible an arrangement with wholesale growers is necessary. Such buying requires considerable experience as it must be regulated by the orders of the day as well as by the season and state of the market.

If the hotel is a favourite with the dinner-giving class there will frequently be orders for special colours or special flowers for the tables, and an experienced buyer may be able to work in one such order with another and to make over sufficient for the next day's use out of what remains of good flowers, but as stale flowers are never permissible the work of perpetual renewal and purchase is no sinecure. The marketing, which might also include the buying of all plants used inside and outside the building, might be the work of a man, the care of the same plants and the arrangement of the table flowers, that of a woman, and both should be able to justify their existence merely by good advertisement.

Routine Management

Probably the first morning duty inside the hotel will be that of attending to the plants in the sitting-rooms and hall ; sponging, watering, trimming, and changing the position so as to prolong life and make the best effect. Cut flowers in the same rooms will call for attention and then those of the tables in the dining-hall and restaurant. The vases and bowls should be carried out on trays for washing and rearrangement, but to keep flowers for any length of time they should be taken out of water overnight and enclosed in airtight drawers or boxes, preferably zinc-lined. If this precaution is taken they will last twice as long as when left in water and about the rooms. A little salt put into tepid water revives and freshens cut flowers brought in from market. Small flowers are better if arranged in wet sand or moss litter. Much wiring is to be avoided, but weak stems will need support.

Table Decorations and Table Napery

To decorate a table suitably and artistically both judgment and taste are essential, for flowers, beautiful in themselves, may appear hideous if badly arranged, wrongly assorted, or if they are out of harmony with their surroundings. Two or three flowers of suitable colour with ferns or leaves, gracefully grouped in a fitting receptacle, add a touch of refinement to the most homely meal, whereas a mass of expensive flowers inharmoniously grouped may produce an inartistic effect positively annoying to those who are acutely sensitive to any error in symmetrical arrangement or classification of colours. On the other hand, one's enjoyment of a well-cooked meal is distinctly enhanced by something pleasant to look upon, and an artistic floral decoration undoubtedly contributes in no small measure to a general sense of beauty, brightness and repose.

Nature at every season of the year yields something that can be utilised in table decorations. During the autumn and winter months, when flowers are scarce, most excellent substitutes are forthcoming, if one has but the ingenuity to adapt what nature provides ready to hand at these seasons. The leaves of the common garden carrot, for instance, turn in the fall of the year to exquisite shades of yellow, orange and red. The gradation of colours which develop in this simple foliage are indescribably varied and beautiful, and when relieved by anemones, single dahlias, camellias, or any other blossoms of colours to accord with their tones, the effect is enhanced considerably.

While it is impossible to describe schemes of table decoration that shall be suitable for all occasions and all types of rooms, a few general hints may be helpful.

Coloured foliage is a great addition when in keeping with the other flowers used. As much as possible use their own foliage with all flowers, and do not add any kind of green simply for the sake of getting a contrast. Some flowers, like sweet peas and Shirley poppies, should have no foliage save their own tendrils or light grass with them. Gypsophila, used sparingly, gives lightness, but used too freely confuses and spoils the effect of the flowers it accompanies. Too much smilax or asparagus fern may kill the rest of the colour scheme.

In spring-time boughs of budding shrubs, like willow-catkins, limes, etc., open out delightfully in water if kept back a few days and give the prettiest of effects.

Mixtures of different flowers (of different colours) are seldom, if ever, satisfactory, but mixtures of flowers of one colour, in diverse shades of that colour, may be very effective indeed. An orange table, for example, may be composed of the tapering montbretia, golden coreopsis, light and dark, musk, marigolds, nasturtiums, etc. Carnations also may be shaded from light to dark, roses may be mixed or shaded, sweet peas of all shades together. These are true and natural combinations.

The coloured Frontispiece plate gives a suggestion as to arrangement of sweet peas of mixed colours, and it should be noted how sparingly they are used. Nothing should be put with these flowers that may detract from their delicacy either of colour or form.

Elsewhere in volume we have a suggestion for using large single roses, with ribbons and candle shades to match the tint. This might be carried out in any shade of rose, and failing sufficiently large and handsome blooms, single sprays of roses could be used placed at equal distances from each other. Dutch pæonies, too, would suit this design very well. It would be an exceedingly effective design for a room filled with round tables, and is easy to carry out in water-lilies as well as roses. Other arrangements will be seen in some of the half-tone illustrations.

In hot weather a cool effect is obtained by using pyramidal blocks of solid ice as centres for large and long tables, the ice being set on inverted flower-pots, the latter being in zinc trays. Tray and pots are easily hidden in roses and leaves, and the ice cools the atmosphere as well as

keeps the flowers beautifully crisp and fresh. An oblong piece of silvered glass or mirror is also a favourite centre-piece, giving the effect of water and its reflections, but should only be used when the flowers are suited to it. As a rule clear glass vases and bowls are much to be preferred to any coloured bowls or holders. Unless the flowers are very small it is not well to use the whole plant, but in the case of certain dainty little flowering plants the best effect is only obtained by allowing Nature to arrange them, taking root and all together to place in suitable bowls.

In arranging flowers on any table the thing to avoid is confusion—confusion of effect and confusion of materials. One or two choice blooms are infinitely better than a profusion of inferior sorts, and flowers should never obscure those who sit vis-à-vis to each other.

Another pretty combination in autumn may be effected with these carrot tops combined with guelder rose leaves and berries, some selected light green trails of brambles, and branches of blackberry laden with fruit. Again, tinted oak and beech leaves, with a few of the dark rich tones of the copper beech, even without any berries, make a very pretty decoration. Another arrangement is one composed principally of fronds of bracken with a little copper beech introduced in the centre of the bracken. Other effective substitutes for flowers can be obtained from such growths as lycopodium moss, virginia creeper, scarlet rowan berries, Cape gooseberries, heather, and even the common parsley silvered by the frost, whilst at Christmas time the whole scheme might be rendered in holly, ivy and mistletoe. Candles or lamps with “icicle” shades, and white-washed twigs cunningly arranged in the centre will give a fittingly wintry appearance to the whole table.

As to the flowers, there is no end, of course, to their beauty and variety, and there is not the slightest need to go out of one's way to procure exotics, since flowers are always most beautiful at their proper season and in their own land. Whenever possible they should be arranged with their natural foliage, for none will be found to suit them better. What, for instance, could form so suitable a background for the arum lily as its own beautiful spear-headed leaf, or what would harmonise more perfectly with daffodils or tulips than their own delightful foliage of green lance-like leaves? When the natural foliage is not practicable leaves of lighter shades of green naturally suggest themselves, such as smilax and asparagus fern. Japanese leaves, by the way, form a welcome change from smilax, which, although it may be described as a most effective and useful decoration, one grows somewhat weary of seeing night after night serpentine the table, or festooned from vase to vase, after the manner so beloved by amateurs.

The natural form of the flowers should also be considered. Long-stalked flowers, such as gladioli, daffodils, iris, tulips, chrysanthemums, etc., should never be crammed into low squat vases, and, on the other hand, the beauty of such flowers as roses, sweet peas, violets, and other flowers which grow close to the ground, is better displayed by the use of low bowls. Different shades of colour may be brought together with the



To face page 58.

FLORAL TABLE DECORATION.

greatest advantage, but it is rarely advisable to put actually different colours in juxtaposition. There are, however, a few exceptions to the rule, notably a combination of brown and yellow chrysanthemums, mauve and yellow iris, lilac blossom and pale pink roses. Mauve and pale pink sweet peas, and lilies of the valley, and parma or other violets or heliotrope, red roses and white lilac blossom or white iris, all of which produce harmonious effects.

Flowers with strong scents should be avoided as they frequently produce faintness in a heated room. Flowers and candle-shades—for subdued candle light is generally chosen for dinner-tables—should match in colour, and very frequently the dessert likewise.

When flowers are scarce, the dwarf plants or hardy ferns planted in quaint, artistic, ornamental pots or baskets, with an inner lining to hold water, will be found capital for table decoration of the everyday luncheon and dinner. Dainty indeed are the pale green and white trellis pattern flower-pots with their inner lining of thin opaque china; and equally artistic are the bowls and vases in delicate art shades, graduating in depth of colour from quite pronounced tones at the bottom, up to the very lightest tints at the top, where they are in close proximity to the flowers contained in them. The vase is an important item of consideration in every arrangement of flowers. White flowers should never be put in white vases, but there is a wide choice of suitable colours, and receptacles of old silver or pewter suit them to perfection. Vases and bowls of clear glass, through which the stems of the flowers can be seen, should be filled with water, but receptacles of metal, china, or opaque glass may be filled with moss or sand, in which it is far easier to arrange the flowers. Flowers that have lost their freshness may be revived if their stems are placed in boiling water. They should remain until the water is quite cold, and after cutting off the tops of the stalks the flowers are once more ready for use. Smilax will keep fresh and crisp for several days if allowed to hang suspended in a damp cloth at nights, instead of being left in a warm room.

A great feature of modern decorations is the distinctive character usually assumed on all special occasions. A pretty idea during the summer months, when strawberries are in season, can be carried out as follows. Everything has to be either in red, pink, or cream colour. The menu is printed in scarlet on cream-tinted cards, and some of the dishes are as follows: salmon darioles (moulds lined with pink aspic), chicken cream (into which some deep red tomato pulp has been incorporated), strawberry charlotte, strawberry cream and strawberry jellies; for dessert, strawberry ices are also included. The table decorations are planned with a similar object. Small bouquets of pink flowers, tied with cream or crushed strawberry-coloured ribbon, are placed in front or on the side of each plate, whilst the centre piece of flowers is in harmony with the reigning colour.

Table centres have nowadays more or less fallen into neglect, the plain, white damask, fresh from the hands of a first-rate laundress,

being more and more relied upon as the most appropriate background for foliage and sprays. Double damask, such as that supplied by enterprising Irish manufacturers, is the most economical material to purchase when choosing table linen. Though expensive in the first place, it wears excellently, and so serves its purpose in the long run. Table cloths with large central designs are more costly than spots, hailstones, sprigs, and small running patterns. Of late years the desire for the reproductions of the furniture of famous periods has also penetrated to the choice of designs in table damask. Owing to the enterprise of the firms mentioned above, it is now possible to purchase exclusive designs in table cloths suitable for dining-rooms of the Queen Anne, Empire, Georgian, Adam and Sheraton styles. The characteristics of each period are strikingly exemplified in the table cloths of this make. They include the conventional shell pattern of Queen Anne, the scrolls and winged cherubs of the Georgian period, the urns and elliptical ornaments designed by the brothers Adam, and the typical wreaths and conventional Greek honeysuckle of the days of the Empire. These cloths can be supplied in very fine damask in any size with table napkins to match.

Dinner napkins can usually be purchased in three sizes, the medium size being the most usual for ordinary wear. For fanciful folding stiffness is necessary, but too much starch causes them to wear out more quickly. Whenever possible, dinner napkins should match the table cloth. The "fleur-de-lis" and water-lily are pretty designs, as are also the fan and duchess, which last must be placed upright in a wine glass to get the proper effect. During recent years the trend has been in the direction of simplicity in table appointments, and napkins have been folded quite flat or in some very simple design. Probably in time the pendulum will swing back and more elaborate designs will once again find favour, but it is well to remember that over-elaboration in napkin folding is never in good taste. In private dining-rooms and high-class public dining-rooms one simple pattern is usually adopted to the exclusion of all others.

Care of Plants

Before we name a few of the hardy shrubs and flowering plants suited to outside decoration it is worth while reminding the management that also from this special point of view a winter garden, or covered veranda, is a great adjunct to the hotel. In itself a fine attraction as a lounge or smoke-room, it is also of considerable use and saving in other ways. For instance, it facilitates a change of trees and plants from unfavourable situations to one eminently favourable, and thus prolongs and renews the life of valuable and costly trees and plants. A sojourn in the winter garden will often save plants that otherwise might have to be cast away as hopeless. Many things recover after a year or two of quiet rest, just as among the quite hardy they recover after a year or two out of doors in a garden. Most florists and growers depend on high fertilisation or feeding with artificial manures, thus forcing the bloom and exhausting

the plant in the process. Hydrangeas are an example in point. Their fine trusses of bloom are splendidly decorative and are artificially coloured by the chemical foods on which the plant is reared. But the result is the complete exhaustion of the plant. Yet after being cut down and set away in a sheltered garden or under cool glass for a year or two, the original strength comes back and the plant may become almost as good as ever. In the meantime the foliage of a good plant makes a background sufficiently decorative for the winter garden, where a vine, a plumbago or a rose gives a touch of grace and colour, leaving the benches and corners for this kindly economic purpose of restoration. Bulbs are another case in point, and hyacinths, tulips, narcissi, gladioli, and so on, may be housed in the winter garden after their day of effort is done, prove no eyesore, and come out again a year or two later almost as fresh as before.

In large hotels where the clientele is a fashionable one and the management make a speciality of providing rooms for wedding receptions and at homes, concerts, etc., it is wise to keep a certain amount of suitable stock on hand, otherwise the florist's bill will run away with profits.

A few silver maples, certain of the finer palms like *Cocos weddelliana*, and the hardier *Kentias* and *Phoenix* are essential. The former make graceful arches for doorways and platforms, the latter fill out corners and provide ornamental groupings. For borders, window-sills, fireplaces, and stages where small, thick greenery is required, *Auralias*, *Grevillea robusta* and the bushy ferns are useful. *Lancifolium* lilies, syringas and spiræas are almost indispensable, but their life is not long, unless they can be transferred to the winter garden or conservatory afterwards.

Good palms must not be left in a hot dry atmosphere any longer than is necessary. If they are kept out of draught, never allowed to get dry, and their leaves sponged regularly, even the delicate *Cocos* will last quite a long time.

Keeping over geraniums and growing on seedling plants and ferns would need a little hothouse erection and take more time and attention than any employee has to spare, and yet such hobbies often find their way into favour with quite busy people. No sunny corner need be wasted, and where there is the will it is easy to find a way to make use of any material by which an honest penny can be saved, not to mention earned.

Outdoor Work

A word in conclusion as to the kind of shrubs that thrive best outside the building.

For decorative effect close-clipped yews and box trees, cut continental fashion in quaint shapes of birds and animals, are very attractive placed here and there, but they require constant clipping and are therefore not suited to a busy establishment. The golden euonymus and privets require less frequent cutting and also lend themselves well to shaping. These are all extremely hardy. Laurels, variegated and bay, shrubs of acacia and sumach, and almost any of the maples, especially the silver ones, are particularly decorative. These may all be left

out of doors in winter. Trees in pots, such as the orange, standard fuchsias, geraniums, and roses, will all stand well for a full season, and are worth purchasing. And the effect of boxes filled with the common *tropæolum* and *canariensis* are well worth keeping in mind.

Trees and plants for indoor decoration are generally confined to palms and ferns of various sorts, tall, dwarf, hanging or bushy, as may be needed for the places they have to fill. The variegated *aspidistra* is splendidly effective and thrives even when ill-treated, but the rubber tree must receive most careful consideration. Palms will not stand great differences of temperature, and as beforehand, draughts and currents of air are even more dangerous than cold and neglect. Thus the care of what may be styled mere accessory decoration is not a negligible item in the cost of the upkeep of any hotel, but as we have remarked before, it must be looked upon as advertisement and as such be made to yield its own return.

Readers should refer to the chapter on "The Caterer's Farm" in this volume. It is obvious that when such an adjunct to the business is run, the difficulties of keeping up a constant supply of plants and flowers are greatly simplified and the cost reduced.

While in the above chapter we have been writing mainly for the hotel and restaurant, we would add that the wise use of plants and flowers is equally advantageous in more popular resorts. Neither boarding-house keepers nor the managers of popular refreshment places could afford considerable expenditure in this direction, but a small amount laid out with taste will go quite far. The brightness and freshness that is brought into the place will have its influence on patrons. The flowers and greenery attract, make the customers pleased with their surroundings, and then if the catering be good they will show their preference for surroundings made attractive by these means.

Screen Work

The possibilities of plants used as screens are not realised as fully as they should be. In clever hands much may be done with shrubs in pots or tubs and with creepers trained over trellis work or climbers clustered round tall poles. Having a selection of these available for appropriate grouping, it is often possible to make use of waste space for the placing of extra tables, thus increasing, permanently or temporarily, the money-earning catering area.

Let us consider a few of such possible arrangements by way of example.

We have already mentioned the placing of plants—palms, shrubs, ramblers, and pot flowers—in the entrance hall or lounge. With a little ingenuity these may be so arranged as to provide cosy nooks or bays where comfortable wicker or lounge chairs can be grouped round tea-tables. In this way even very busy entrance lounges or comparatively narrow halls may be made to yield profit-earning space, especially appreciated by ladies and visitors. It is quite unnecessary in such instances to provide

thick screens. A very little will go a long way in furnishing just the privacy demarcation that is sought after without making an obstruction. Palms, bay laurels, orange or lemon trees and ramblers are suitable.

More effective plant screens will make many balconies and terraces available, even if these overlook busy streets. For these positions a living wall or hedge can be made with bay laurels, dark and silver-edged box and blind green and white-edged holly, placed in boxes or pots. These may be lined both inside and outside with dwarf marguerites, scarlet and trailing geraniums, lobelias, etc., or in the winter with one or other of the scarlet-berried dwarf shrubs. For the upper part of the screen trained shrubs will be required, or trellis work covered with ramblers or creepers. Some of the small-leaved variegated ivies do very well, giving foliage all the year round; but they are rather troublesome to keep in order. In certain positions, for instance, on balconies overlooking streets or exposed to windy quarters, it may be well to arrange the trellis overhead, thus providing an arbour. Or it may even be well to put up a glazed slanting roof, with every alternate panel in a sliding frame. Occasionally cut glass screens may also be necessary as a protection for both plants and guests. A "hanging garden" such as this will be much appreciated.

Roof-gardens also prove very attractive and remunerative. It is comparatively rare to meet with a restaurant or hotel with a flat roof, though this practice should become more general in the future, but even so, over an extensive building it is often possible to find some space which with a very little structural alteration or addition can be made to furnish quite an acceptable roof-garden. In these cases it is frequently advisable to have quite substantial foliage screens, either clipped shrubs or ivy, to be supplemented with flowers and coloured foliage plants in pots. Where the view consists mainly of roofs and chimney-pots, the foliage screens should be carried up to from five to six feet, with open bays where there are good vistas, or adroitly arranged peep-holes. Here again overhead trellis work to be covered by ramblers or foliage climbers may be advisable.

The actual selection of plants in all these cases will depend largely upon locality and situation. But for the open air bay laurel, box and blind holly will be found excellent stand-bys for almost any place, as they are not only ornamental and of bushy growth, but really hardy. Privet, though a quick grower, and tempting on that account, should be avoided, as it is a "greedy" plant and also attracts winged insects. Ivy, when allowed to grow luxuriantly, also possesses the disadvantage of harbouring vermin. It is, however, such a useful plant in its many varieties, that it is often worth all the trouble that its care involves. The chief aim should be to train the plants in such a way as to give a thick growth from the ground up to four feet or more, and this will be secured by means of suitable pruning, assisted in some cases by judicious layering and in others by pricking in offsets, in others by pleaching (natural grafting), as with the hollies. But these are details that can only be roughly

indicated and must be left to the professional gardener, who will be the best guide in such matters.

Contract Work

It is probable that when a caterer has a good demand for plants and flowers—especially when made use of as described in the above paragraph, and does not have the advantage of possessing a farm or a large garden—it is wiser to entrust the work to a contractor rather than to a private employee. In the latter case there is always the difficulty of holidays and illness, to say nothing about unlooked for accidents. Under these circumstances it will frequently be found that a contract can be made with a professional gardener which will not only give incomparably better results, but in the end prove far more economical. The contractor will take pride in his work, if for no other reason than because it will be a splendid advertisement for him.

CHAPTER V

TABLE NAPKINS

TABLE NAPKINS, now considered indispensable in all classes of establishments above the cheapest kind, were first used by children only, not being adopted by the elders until the middle of the fifteenth century. Before that the floating parts of table cloths served the grown-up people for wiping their fingers. When, however, napkins came into use they were placed first on the shoulder, then over the left arm (as waiters still carry theirs), and finally tied about the neck.

Napkins became popular in France much earlier than in England, so it is natural to find that the French take the credit of having first introduced the art of folding table napkins in more or less artistic or fantastic shapes. In the early period the French were rather extravagant in the use of napkins, for, it is said, not only were the napkins changed for every meal, but actually with every course. Moreover, it was then the custom, in addition to folding them in fancy forms, to perfume them with scents, such as rose-water and lavender, or with flowers bearing a pleasant fragrance.

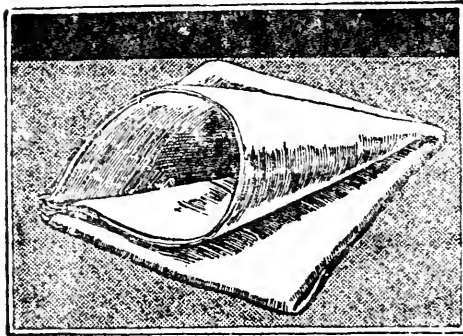
Probably the earliest details on the subject are to be found in the "*Maître d'Hôtel*," published by Pierre David about 1650, which among other things, the author claimed, "teaches how to wait on a table properly and how to fold all kinds of table napkins in all kinds of shapes." The forms described were: "the square, twisted, folded in bands and in the form of a double and twisted shell, single shell, double melon, single melon, cock, hen, hen and chicks, two chickens, pigeon in a basket, partridge, pheasant, two capons in a pie, hare, rabbits, sucking-pig, dog with a collar, pike, carp, turbot, mitre, turkey, tortoise, the Holy Cross and the Lorraine cross."

Since then many pretty and ingenious designs have been introduced. The glossy-faced damask, by means of many folds, turns and twists, can be made to take the shape of fans, ships and boats, caps, flowers, birds, and fanciful figures of all kinds. Much patience and practice is required to enable anyone to fold serviettes properly. But although the art is highly developed, for many years now it has been in disfavour so far as general use is concerned. The prevailing notion is that the napkins actually used should be handled as little as possible before taken possession of by those at table. Consequently in the best establishments the napkins are placed flat in the plate as they come from the linen room, or are lightly shaped into simple forms, such as the "slipper," or the "lunch." However, more elaborate patterns are sometimes demanded for the guests, but more often to adorn the head or foot of the table and the

sideboard. We, therefore, give instructions and diagrams for a few of the most useful patterns for these two purposes.

The "Slipper"

To fold a serviette into the "slipper" fold proceed as follows: Lay the napkin flat as in Fig. 1.



THE "SLIPPER"

Proceed to fold into three, and, having produced Fig. 2, next find the centre of the upper line of Fig. 2 and fold down the two halves of the upper line till they meet, which gives Fig. 3. Having placed this on its face, turn up ends into two folds, to produce Fig. 4, after which close attention is essential. Seize hold of the points A and B, and tuck the corner of A into B. Thus the lower part of the serviette, as shown in Fig. 4, bulges out, and the upper part, joined below, becomes the lower part of the

completed "slipper," as seen on the plate.

This "slipper" fold is often used for the breakfast or luncheon table, the conical form being held in position by the insertion of a breakfast roll, although the serviette, if properly starched, will hold up without such support.

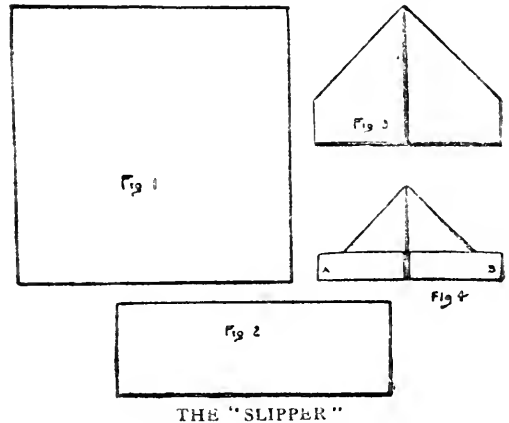
The "Lunch"

Having laid the serviette flat on the table as in Fig. 1, fold into three equal parts, by which means Fig. 2 is produced.

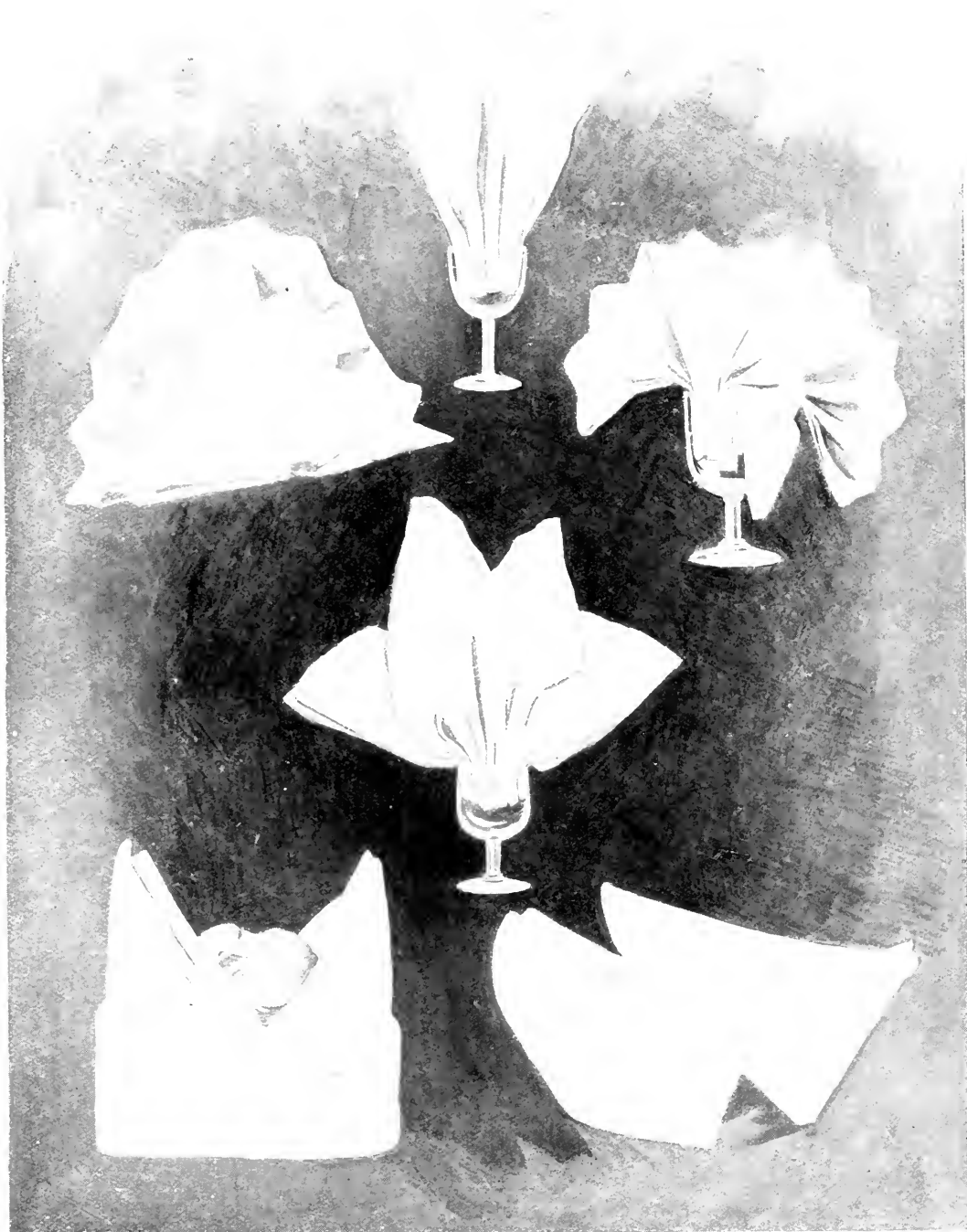
Now find the centre of the upper line of Fig. 2, and at that point fold over the top of napkin, forming Fig. 3. By repeating the process with the other side of napkin Fig. 4 is obtained.

Turn up the lower edges until the folds rest on the edge of the other side, as in Fig. 5.

Seizing the lower angles of triangle shown in Fig. 5, tuck them one into the other, thus forming the whole serviette into a cylindrical shape, producing Fig. 6, which is then of the larger drawing above.

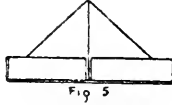
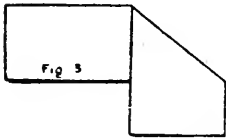
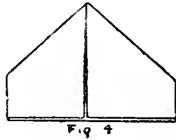
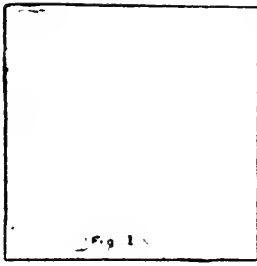


THE "SLIPPER"



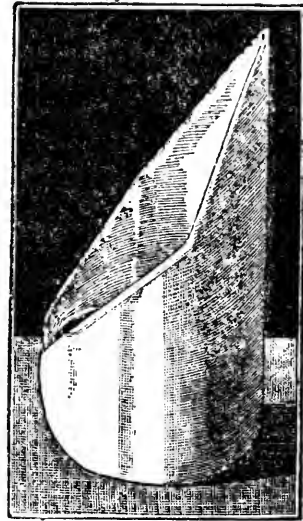
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SOME EXAMPLES OF
SERVIETTE FOLDING.



THE "LUNCH"

This is a simple design, which can be easily carried out with a lightly starched napkin.



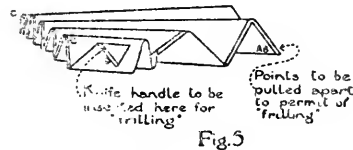
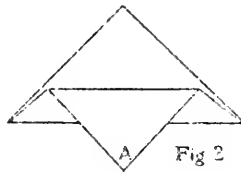
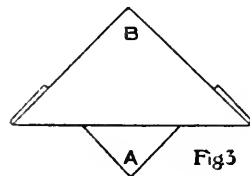
THE "LUNCH" FOLD

The "Petal and Fan"

Place the napkin on the table corner-wise, and bring the bottom corner upon the top one, as in Fig. 1; then bring down the top point A, but taking the upper fold only, and carry it below bottom line of triangle for some inches, as shown in Fig. 2. On turning this over, the serviette will be as Fig. 3, when the point B should be brought down till it rests upon point A.

Fig. 4 thus produced is now pleated from the centre, the pleats being pressed firmly together, so that the folds formed will remain clearly defined.

Having obtained the form Fig. 5, the process of "frilling" is next undertaken. For this, the hands must be quite free, so some method of



THE "PETAL AND FAN"

holding the napkin is necessary. The easiest plan is to sit down and use the knees as a second pair of hands or vice for gripping the thick ends of the folds (c c). Take a table knife in the right hand with

the blade resting in the palm; open fold D, as indicated in diagram, with the fingers of the left hand, and insert the handle of the knife. With left hand proceed to run the pleats on to the handle. In doing this the thumb and forefinger of right hand should grip each pleat as it is passed on, squeezing it against the others which are being pressed against the inner part of the hand. When the knife handle appears through the last pleat at opposite side from which it entered, give a firm squeeze with both hands and withdraw handle, taking care to press thumb and forefinger of right hand against the frilled pleats when doing so in order to avoid their being dragged out of shape. When the "frilling" is finished, the thick folds C C are gripped in the left hand, the points of petals are taken between the fingers of the right hand and pulled upwards to make them stand straight. The napkin is then ready to be placed in a wineglass, nothing remaining to be done but to pull the frilling down on each side, when it will assume the graceful shape represented on plate.

The "Lily"

Here again the napkin should first be placed on the table crosswise, when the lower point is brought up and laid upon the upper one, so that a triangular figure is produced, as in Fig. 1.

With the right and left hands grasp the corners A B, carry them up some inches, folding the serviette upon itself, so completing Fig. 2. Now with the right hand bring point C over to the left, place it upon point E, and flatten down, as in Fig. 3.



Fig 1



Fig 2

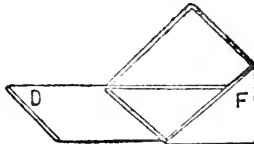


Fig 3



Fig 4

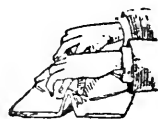
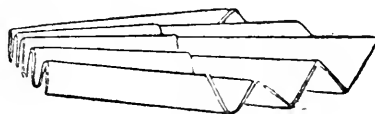
Fig 5
Showing method of
Planting

Fig 6

THE "LILY"

Point *D* is folded over to right upon point *F* (Fig. 4), when the napkin is pleated as follows :—

Place the tips of the thumbs and second fingers of both hands on the napkin, the right thumb and finger being about the centre of right side, the left thumb and finger centre of left side, thumbs turned inwards and fingers inward, and both about a couple of inches apart from one another. While pressing down firmly, push the thumbs along to the middle fingers, and, in so doing, squeeze up a pleat between them. Bring the forefingers into play, and squeeze the pleat between them and the thumbs, thus releasing the second fingers which can be advanced a little so as to allow another pleat to be squeezed up to them, to be held between the forefinger and the thumbs. Continue doing this until the napkin, from centre to end, is neatly pleated. This done, grip the pleats firmly, turn the whole round, and pleat in exactly same manner from centre to other end (Fig. 6). This process, which is somewhat tedious, is made easier if the fingers are slightly damp.

Now take the thick end of pleats in the left hand. With the thumb and forefinger of the right hand catch one of the points, pull upwards and at the same time give it the graceful outward turn at the top, which is done by pressing upwards with the ball of the thumb and straining the linen over it by means of the forefinger. Treat the other point in the same way and place the serviette in a wineglass.

The “Double Fan”

Open out the napkin on the table (Fig. 1) ; then bring down the top edge to centre, so that *A A* lie upon *C C* ; do same with the lower edge, when *B B* will lie upon *C C* ; and press down the creases firmly (Fig. 2).

Turn completely over, without disarranging the two folds, and carry up the lower edge *E E* until it rests upon *D D*, thus folding the whole in half so that a long rectangular figure, of four equal folds of linen, is formed (Fig. 4).

Now pleat from the centre to both ends in the same way as that already explained for the “tulip” and the “lily.” The dotted lines in the diagram (Fig. 4) give an idea of the width the pleats should be (Fig. 5). The next step is, vandyke the upper edge of both sides by slipping the first finger between the two folds and pulling the linen down between pleats, while pressing the two pleats on each side together by means of the thumb and second finger (Fig. 6).

When this is done the napkin becomes a single pleated “fan,” vandyked on both sides. By separating the two folds at top with both hands, and pulling them gently apart pleat by pleat, the “double fan” is achieved, the pleats only requiring to be pressed together at the lower edge and placed in a wineglass.

The “Shell”

Fold an open napkin exactly in half. Bring the upper fold down so that *A A* lie on *B B* (Fig. 2).

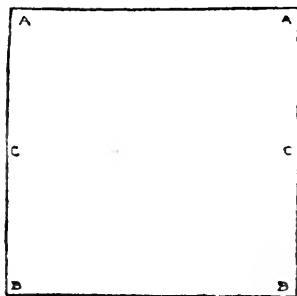


Fig. 1

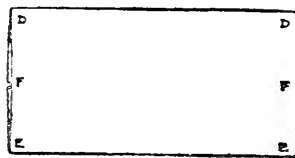


Fig. 3



Fig. 4

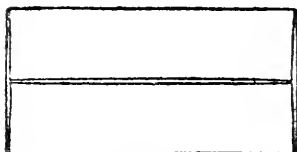


Fig. 2



Fig. 5

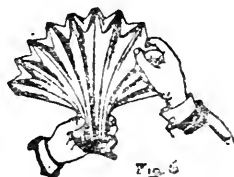


Fig. 6

THE "DOUBLE FAN"

Turn over and proceed as in Fig. 1; then turn the napkin lengthwise outwards (Fig. 3). Then pleat from the centre to the ends (Fig. 4).

The upper portions of the shorter outer folds between each of the pleats should be vandyked, and then the top edge must be treated in same way (Fig. 5).

The napkin being in four thicknesses pleated, and the lower edge, c c, in two distinct folds, shown by D E in the underneath section (Fig. 6),

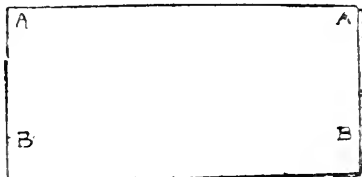


Fig. 1.

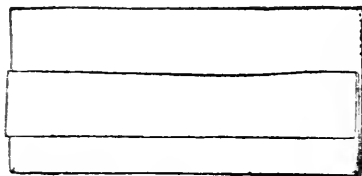


Fig. 2

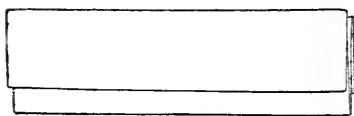


Fig. 3

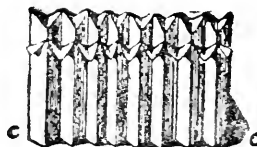


Fig. 5



Fig. 6



Fig. 4.

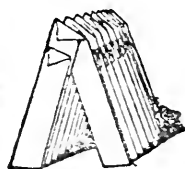


Fig. 7

THE "SHELL"

the next step is to separate these folds, D from E, drawing them carefully out, until the serviette will stand by itself (Fig. 7).

Take hold of the two end pleats at the top, D, with thumbs and forefingers of both hands, press the lower portions inwards with the other fingers, pull the top of pleats down to the table and the "shell" will be complete.

The "Mitre"

Although somewhat elaborate, it is necessary to be perfect in the "mitre," for it is one of the most popular folds for both table and sideboard decoration, and indeed, is often seen in restaurant and catering contractors' windows.

Lay the napkin open on the table and bring the lower edge over in one fold, so as to reduce the size of the whole by one-third, as in Fig. 1.

Fold the single layer of the upper part under the two layers of the lower part, giving three thicknesses of linen, thus producing Fig. 2.

Take the three folds, bring the edge A A to the centre line c c, and the opposite edge B B to c c in the same manner (Fig. 3).

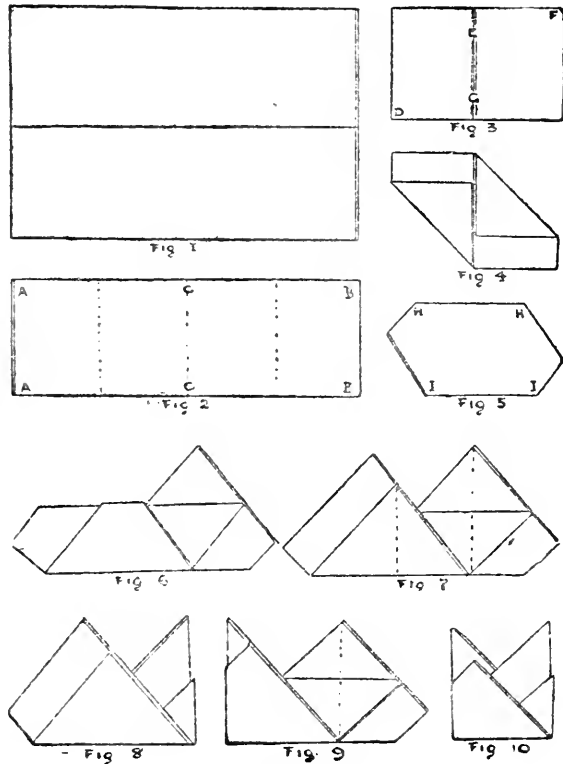
This is how the napkin generally comes from the laundry, so this preliminary process is usually done by others, but as it is essential it is mentioned here.

The real process now begins. Bring the corner F down to point G, and the corner D up to point E (Fig. 4).

See that all the folds are accurate, with edges together; turn it completely over, laying it on the table with the edge H H outward, and I I inward (Fig. 5).

Fold H H over inward, so that it lies on I I (Fig. 6).

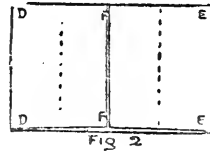
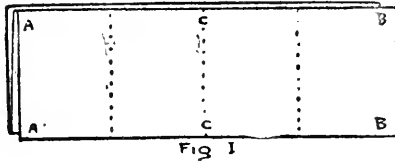
Grasp this firmly, and again turn completely over (Fig. 7). In Fig. 8 the line K K shows the crease upon which the right hand portion must



THE "MITRE"

be folded, corner L being brought across and tucked in under the triangular folds marked J J—result. Fold the right hand portion across and tuck in, as in Fig. 9, and we have the completed Fig. 10.

Next take the napkin in both hands, placing the fingers in the opening underneath, press them against the palms of the hands, and open out to make it stand securely, and receive the roll usually placed therein. This opening out requires care.



"TWIN BOATS."

"Twin Boats"

This is the design which is useful in seaports, or when naval guests are being entertained.

Lay the napkin open upon the table, then fold it in three, as shown in Fig. 1.

Proceed with the right hand to fold B B to the centre, pressing down upon C C, while with the left hand carry out the same operation at A A, thus reducing the length by one half (Fig. 2).

Fold E E and D D to the centre F F (Fig. 3), and turn this completely over (Fig. 4).

Now place the forefinger of the left hand upon the centre H, slipping the forefinger of the right hand beneath the centre of the folds at G, and so bring them down till G rests upon H, as in Fig. 5.

Having turned the napkin round, bring I down on to H, as just described (Fig. 6), and turn it over once more.

To complete, slip the thumbs of the right and left hands beneath the centre folds at J K, while letting the remaining fingers of both hands rest upon the outer edge L L. Press the fingers towards the centre, at the same time opening the folds at J K gently with the thumbs (Fig. 7).

The Simple Leaf Fan

Lay the serviette open on the table. Take one corner and fold as in Fig. 1, then press the forefinger of left hand on point E, take hold of C

with thumb and forefinger of right hand, fold over and carry up to point B. Press forefinger of right hand on point E, and with left fold over and carry up D, letting it rest on A; press the creases and we have Fig. 2.

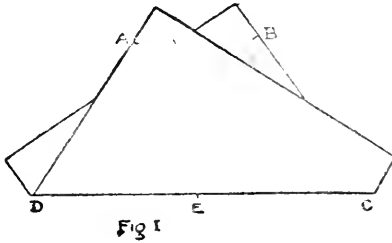


Fig 1

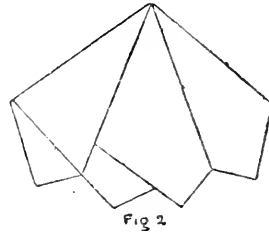


Fig 2

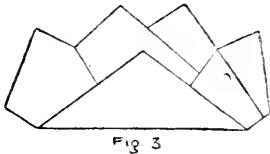


Fig 3

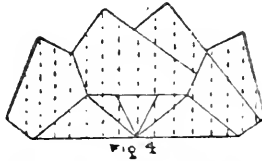


Fig 4



Fig 5.

THE SIMPLE LEAF FAN

Fold up the bottom point and bring it nearly to the lower point of centre top angle, as in Fig. 3. Fold half back again and bring to centre of lower edge, Fig. 4. Now pleat, each pleat being about the width indicated by the dotted lines, as in the Shell, using thumbs and second fingers of both hands; hold the folded linen firmly endways, Fig. 5, shake gently from side to side and place in wineglass.

CHAPTER VI

THE ART OF CARVING

It is as necessary to study carving for the sake of presenting food to the best advantage as it is for the sake of securing reasonable profit.

Bad carving not only spoils the appearance of a joint or a bird, but also entails waste. Certainly meat or poultry carved the right way is in every sense more enjoyable than if hacked by a careless wielder of the knife.

Daintiness in serving counts for much in any class of establishment, and is indispensable in those catering for a select clientele.

Good carving is an indication of efficiency.

Moreover, as already pointed out, in the interests of economy carving should receive careful attention.

If it is carried out with a judicious blend of art and science, it will be found that the joint or bird will produce more than most would imagine possible.

Among the primary rules it will be found that beef and ham must be cut very thin, while lamb, mutton, veal and pork should be cut much thicker. As regards poultry and game, however, the method of carving may vary according to circumstances and the impression desired to be made on the persons served.

If, for instance, the portions form one of many courses it is advisable to make them appear small and dainty; so in carving a chicken, a small wing not encroaching in the least on the breast should be cut off and as much bone as possible removed from the breast before serving it.

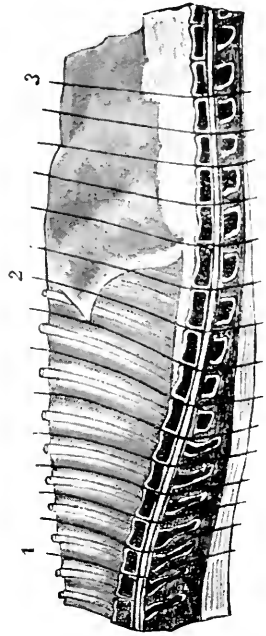
But in a different kind of meal, when the eye, the hunger of which is often far greater than the appetite, has to be satisfied, then the wing of a bird should be made to appear as large as possible by carrying it well over the breast, though taking care to have not more than a shaving of flesh under the skin cut off the breast.

Again, the breast of a bird will appear larger if part of the rib bones are left attached to it.

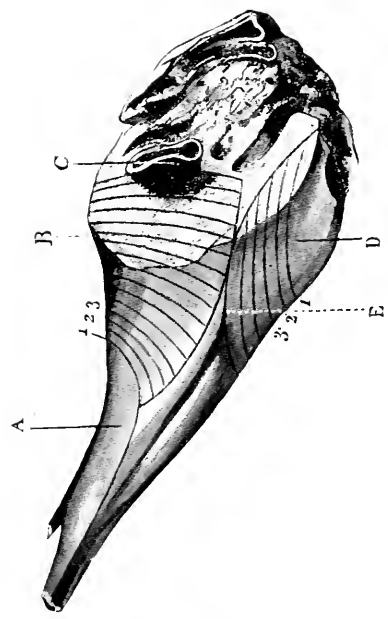
A small, plump bird, such as a pigeon or partridge, divided lengthwise provides two substantial portions, but if skilfully carved will serve four or five in a dinner of many courses.

Separate portions of small birds are usually served on a croûte of toasted bread, which, when possible, should be placed for a few minutes in the roasting pan to catch some of the gravy dropping from the birds.

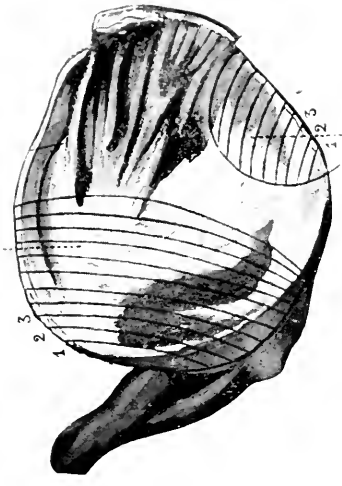
If this cannot be done, the toast should be well buttered and slightly moistened with thick gravy just before serving. The toast should be crisp, golden brown, not overdone.



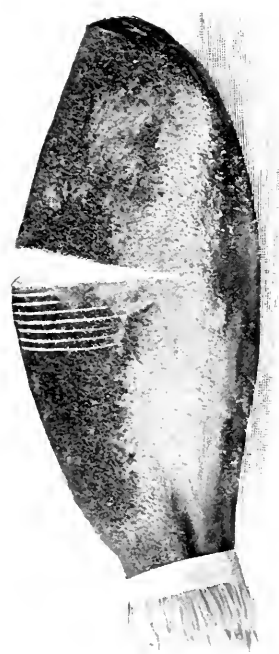
RIBS OR SIRLOIN OF BEEF.



LEG OF MUTTON.



SHOULDER OF MUTTON.



BOILED HAM.

THE CARVING OF JOINTS.

If birds are to be handed round they should be previously carved neatly arranged on a hot dish, and garnished with watercress.

Another way is to pile the neatly cut portions on a large croûte of fried bread. Breast and wings are generally the most esteemed parts of nearly all birds, tame or wild, so these parts should be evenly distributed in dishing up, otherwise all the inferior pieces fall to the share of those who are served last. Thighs of birds may be served, but as a rule drum-sticks should be put aside altogether, or, if used to fill up a dish, they should be placed at the very bottom of it. Neatly carved, however, they form favourite breakfast, luncheon, or supper "devils." The backbone as well as the thigh of a woodcock is greatly esteemed. Other favourite parts are: the oyster filling a cavity in the back of a turkey, oyster and Pope's eye in a leg of lamb or mutton, the undercut of fillet of beef, fins of a turbot, the flap of a salmon, and cod's head and roe.

We have said that careful carving adds greatly to the appearance of a dish. No bird is very difficult to joint if the carver is well acquainted with the anatomy of the different kinds. The fork must not be stuck in the breast of a bird until the flesh has been cut away from the bone.

While it is true that meat carved and placed directly on the plates looks far better than when it has been allowed to remain piled up on a dish, this is not always possible when a joint is carved beforehand in order to expedite the service. Some caterers in order to satisfy all customers have their joints underdone, and to meet the demand for fairly well-cooked meat carve a few slices beforehand and place them in single layers on a hot dish or hot plate. By this means meat quickly loses some of its redness without losing its flavour or becoming hard, as it almost inevitably does when brought in contact with the metal hotplate. This rule may be applied to underdone birds. The redness round the joint of a leg or wing will speedily disappear if placed on a hot dish or plate with a little gravy. While a dish sent to a table should contain no gravy, one kept on a hot-plate should be kept fairly well supplied in order to prevent the meat becoming dry. It is not an ideal way, however, because the steam arising therefrom deprives the birds or joints of some of their crispness.

A carving knife should be thin, sharp, and of suitable size for the work in hand. It should be sharp enough to make unnecessary undue pressure, which would squeeze out the gravy. The knife should be held lightly, the carver cutting in a sharp and direct manner, so contriving to keep the surface smooth and as level as possible.

For carving fish a silver slicer or trowel should be used, partly because a broad blade causes less disturbance of the flakes, and also because a steel knife applied to fish often spoils the delicacy of its flavour. Great care must be taken in serving out fish to prevent breaking the flakes, which ought to be kept as entire as possible. Short-grained fish, such as salmon, should be cut lengthwise and not crosswise.

A sirloin of beef should be cut into thin slices with a sharp firm cut from end to end of the joint. At the upper portion the cut should be clean and even, and the point of the knife used to loosen the slices from

the bones. In carving the undercut, remove the superfluous fat, and cut the slices across the bones in a contrary direction to the upper portion. Be careful to always cut down straight to the bone of a sirloin or rib of beef, so as to avoid waste and not spoil the appearance of the joint.

"Wing rib" comprising three ribs from the neck-end of the loin is a joint peculiarly suited to the requirements of a dining-room where there is little demand for hot beef, and is an excellent chief joint for a cold collation, buffet, or sideboard. The spinal bone, situated on the left of the joint, should be removed to facilitate carving. Ease is also secured if the rib bones are sawn across to allow the joint to lie flat on the dish. If the whole of a joint is to be cut up while hot the bones should be removed. Meat is always more easily carved when all the bones are taken away, on the other hand when this is done there is the danger of its becoming overcooked if allowed to remain long on the hot plate. For this reason sirloin is not the best joint for a business where the sale of hot beef is not very rapid. If a sirloin remains loin side down on a hot-plate until the fillet is disposed of, it generally becomes overcooked, and so useless as a cold joint. To avoid this the fillet may be removed at the same time. Thin, lanky beef, with long ribs, should be avoided; towards the middle of the back even short plump beef has a considerable length of long thin end, and it will be found more economical to cut off some of this before cooking, even if relegated to the fat pot. In well-managed kitchens such pieces are either pickled and boiled or used in a fresh condition. The thin end of loin or sirloin minced and mixed with lean cold beef makes a good beef gelatine which is a useful sideboard or luncheon dish.

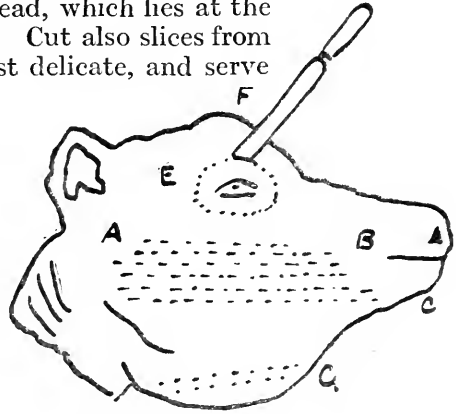
The illustration of ribs or sirloin of beef shows what is known as the "second cut" of the loin. This is comparatively lean, but, owing to its length of rib bones it is less economical than wing rib. In this joint the vertebræ on the left has been cut away, and the rib bones shortened, but not cut across, otherwise the joint would be in closer contact with the dish. In both cases the loin is placed on the left and the ribs on the right hand, though many carvers find it easier work when this order is reversed. When the meat is completely separated from the bones (a common practice with professional carvers where it is allowed) the joint is usually placed with the loin towards and the ribs away from the carver, and in this manner meat can be most neatly and quickly carved. Ribs or loin should be turned over, bones under, and carved in thin slices for dinner or when served cold from a buffet or sideboard, and the same method is applicable to the upper part of a sirloin, but the fillet or undercut of a sirloin should be carved in rather thicker slices across the joint. Beef is usually carved thinly, and a slice or two from the rib end should be added to each portion.

Veal requires special treatment. When carving a loin of veal, remove the kidney, turn the joint over, and carve into slices of moderate thickness. A slice of kidney and some fat is served with each slice of meat.

A neck of veal or mutton must be properly jointed before being cooked.

If this is done it is easy to cut between the bones and separate them at their natural divisions.

A calf's head is carved by making long slices from end to end of the cheek, cutting quite through to the bone, as shown by the dotted lines from A to B in the figure. With each slice a cut of a little of what is known as the throat-sweetbread, which lies at the fleshy part of the neck end, is served. Cut also slices from c to B, which are gelatinous and most delicate, and serve small pieces with the meat. A little of the tongue and a spoonful of the brains are usually placed on each plate. It is advisable to serve the tongue on a separate plate, surrounded by the brains; it is cut across in rather thin slices. Some persons prefer the eye part, which is removed by a circular cut marked by dotted lines E. First put the knife in slanting at F, inserting the point at the part of the dotted line, and driving it into the centre under the eye; then turn the head round keeping the circle of the dotted line with the blade of the knife. The lower jaw must next be removed, beginning at G; and to do this correctly the dish must be turned. The palate is also considered a dainty, and a little of it may be offered to each guest.



In carving a leg or loin of pork the knife must follow in the lines marked out or scored by the cook before the meat is roasted, on the skin which forms the crackling. Unless this is done the skin when roasted will be too crisp to be conveniently cut through with the knife. In businesses where economy is essential the lines scored on a leg of pork must not be too far apart for single cuts, for when this is not attended to it is necessary to raise the crackling to enable the thinner slices to be cut, and then there is difficulty over the crackling, as well as loss of time. Always cut the meat across the grain, not lengthways.

In cheaper classes of establishments a little seasoning is usually placed on the side of the plate, also apple sauce, when served. Where there is less rush and more attendance it is better to hand both round in separate bowls.

To carve rabbit or hare separate the legs and shoulders (often called wings), then cut the back part across into two portions. This is best accomplished by inserting the knife into the joint, and raising up the back by means of the fork. The back or fillet part is considered the best portion of a hare or rabbit.

A ham should be cut through to the bone first from the centre or near the shank end, but always commence cutting from the upper side. Slices must be cut thin. The best way to serve fat and lean evenly, is to begin cutting from the centre of the thickest part, and to cut thin circular slices;

by following this method not only is the flavour of the ham preserved, but greater economy will be secured.

A haunch of venison is carved by first cutting it across lengthways down to the bone, then turning the dish with knuckles furthest outwards, and cutting slices from the centre of either side of the first cut made, as deep as possible. The knife should be held in a sloping position when making the first cut.

Venison should not be cut in very thick slices. Plenty of good gravy should be served with each portion or sent round in a sauce-boat. Both meat and gravy must be quite hot. Red-currant jelly should be handed round with the sauce.

A shoulder of mutton is carved into wedge-shaped slices. Serve a small slice cut from the bladebone end to each guest. All slices should be cut through to the bone, as shown in the illustration. The under parts of a shoulder are considered the most delicate, but the carver should, when possible, ascertain the wishes of those he is cutting for. If for service à la Russe it is a wise plan to place the slices from upper and lower parts in two rows.

The easiest and most profitable way to carve a leg of mutton is to take hold of the bone end with the left hand, to cut the portion marked A with a firm stroke of the knife, next, to make a sharp incision down to the bone at B, cut slender slices from A to C, then loosen the slices from the bone, turn the leg and cut the under portion in the same manner.

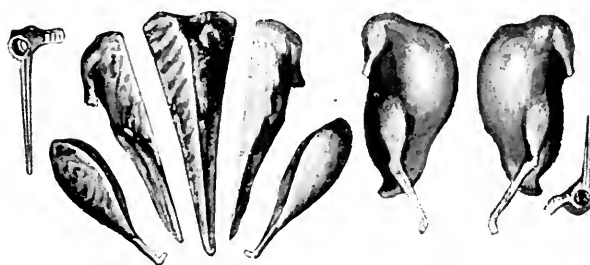
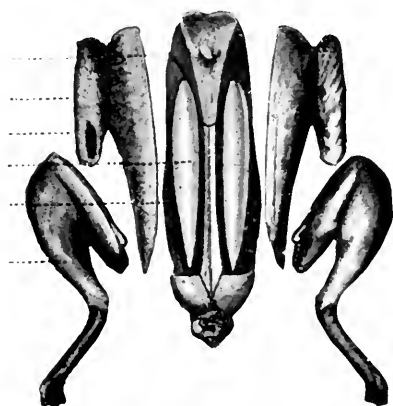
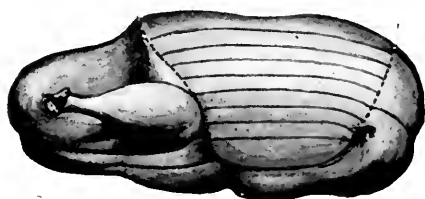
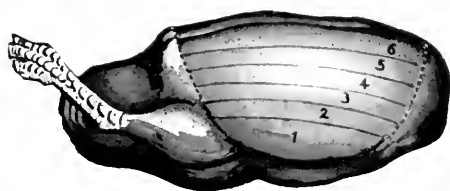
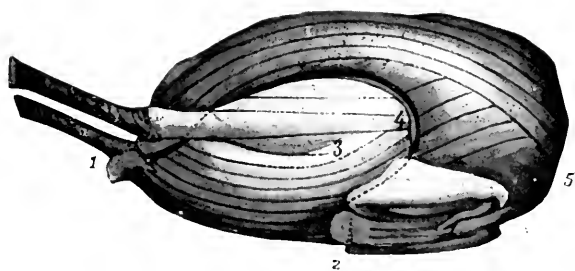
Another way is to reverse the leg, commencing to cut at D, cutting the slices 1—2 and then proceeding in a similar way as above described.

When carving an ox tongue, cutting should be commenced from the middle of the tongue. Do not cut the slices too thin, and take them from each side, being careful not to cut the slices through to the bottom part of the tongue. The extreme end of the tip and the lower part or "root" of the tongue are generally used up for chopping in salpicons, etc. A little of the fat should also be put on each plate. When rolled tongue is served it must be cut horizontally into rather thin slices.

Steak is a very simple matter; rump steak, porter-house steak or sirloin steak is cut into fairly thick pieces right across the steak. A little fat, gravy, and scraped horse-radish should accompany each portion.

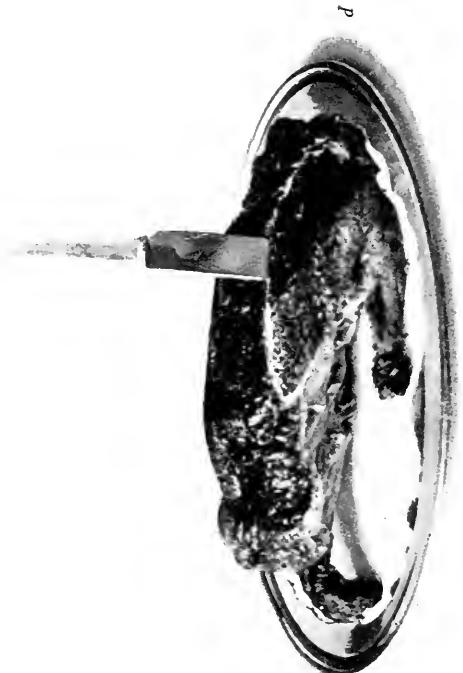
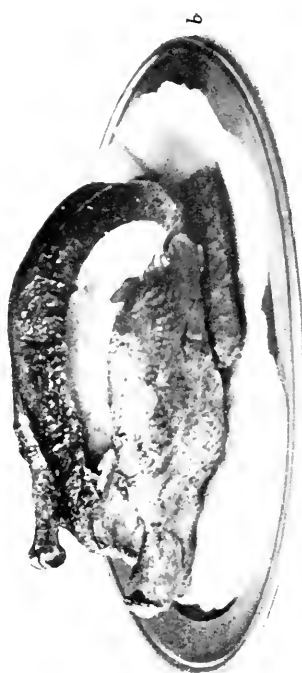
In turkey the breast and wings are considered the best parts. The slices should be cut from each side of the breast alternately, beginning close to the wing. A little stuffing or a small piece of liver ought to be served to each guest. The manner of cutting the slices is shown in the illustration. The legs should be severed from the body and then cut into slices.

A fowl, chicken, or capon when large, may be carved as a turkey. When the wings are severed they should be cut rather small, the breast should be cut in slices, and the drum-stick separated from the remainder of the leg. The thigh of one of these birds is nearly as tender and white as the wing, and may be offered to anyone who likes a generous helping.



To face page 78.

THE CARVING OF POULTRY AND GAME.
Turkey, Duck, Goose, Chicken, Partridge
or Grouse, Woodcock and Snipe.



a and *b* Chicken. *c* and *d* Duck.

CARVING POULTRY.
Chicken and Duck.

The illustration indicates how the breast should be carved after removing the leg.

A gosling, if large and plump, may be carved as a goose, in neat slices indicated by lines. When small, legs and wings should be severed as when carving a duck, and each slice of the breast removed whole, and afterwards divided, should it be too large to be served as one portion. The members of a goose are, as a rule, too large to be served whole, therefore, after removing the leg, the breast and wing should be cut together in slices, as shown by lines in the illustration.

To carve a duckling or duck the wings and legs of both are carved as shown in the illustrations. After removing them the breast should be sliced in the direction indicated by the lines in the illustration shown, or each side of the breast may be left whole when the bird is lean or small.

Grouse, partridge, plover or woodcock are carved much in the same way as a fowl. Other birds unless too small, as would be the case with snipe and quails, may be cut into halves or quarters. Some birds are cut so as to make three portions. The backbone of a woodcock is considered by many epicures a titbit, whilst others consider the thigh to be the most delicate morsel. Otherwise the breast and wing portions are accepted as the best bits of almost any kind of bird, tame or wild. The illustration shows the various parts of pheasant, woodcock and snipe as they should look when properly carved or jointed.

The carving of fish presents no great difficulties, the most important being the lordly salmon. Head and shoulder cuts are served by cutting slices in the following manner: An incision is made along the spine, and also in the same direction in the middle line of the fish, slices are then cut between the lines either back or belly. Cod, ling, haddock, or hake, or any other large fish, is cut in the same manner. Turbot and halibut are divided from head to tail, cutting the flesh into slices on both sides of the fish. The anatomy of turbot and halibut is such that there is no difficulty in carving so as to serve it on the table without bone. It is usual to serve the upper or black side first, turning it over to the white side after the black side has been completely served. Fish like whiting should be served whole, or if of any size they may be cut in half. Mackerel is usually served in pieces according to size. If it is very large it may be split open and boned, or it may be served dressed, in which case it is usually divided into as many portions as the carver may deem sufficient. Plaice and sole, unless they are filleted, are generally cut across into two or more portions, severing the bone when cutting.

Shell fish for reasons that will be obvious require to be carved before they are sent to the table. The lobster must be cut right through from tail to head with a very sharp knife, laying it on its back and beginning at the tail. The knife should never be inserted into the head first, as the shell is certain to break if that is attempted. The claws are then cracked, and the fish sent to table so that the carver can serve them in suitable portions. If crab is sent to the table whole, the claws at any rate must first be removed and broken with a hammer.

PART III

KITCHEN AND STOREROOM SUPPLIES

CHAPTER I

STORAGE

The Storeroom

THE keynote of the storeroom should be orderliness, for it is the apartment in which the requirements of all parts of the establishment are kept. If it be a hotel, then it must be remembered that, from the manager to the "boots," the staff have to obtain everything here. So in the storeroom the most perfect order should be observed, and the old and familiar motto, "A place for everything and everything in its place," should be observed to the letter.

The ideal storeroom should have an impermeable floor, and white tiles should line the walls. The wood used for the shelves should be hard in every instance, for apart from the question of durability, it will be less likely to encourage vermin. The ventilation should be a primary study. A through current of air should be ensured, and the entrance constructed in such a manner that flies and other pests of the summer will not find easy admission. Departments in which food is to be stored should receive the full benefit of the air draught—the other places can serve for the storage of the domestic requisites. On the orderliness of the storeroom depends everything. Remember that the storeroom is, as it were, the distributing department for everything that is used, and the storeroom clerk should know where to put his hand on any article at a moment's notice.

With regard to the storing of foodstuffs, great attention should be paid to keeping those things away from each other which are likely to show their close proximity by becoming affected by smell. Important among these are cheese, butter and bacon, which should always be stored away from materials used for domestic purposes, otherwise they are likely to bear traces of their position. Bacon should be hung on hooks placed in a convenient position, and so that it should not be in the way. The higher part of the storeroom should be devoted to the lighter articles, and the bulky goods can occupy the floor and under shelves, etc. Bottled goods and small casks should be on the lower shelves, as this will save reaching over other articles, and in the event of a "spill" the other goods will escape. This applies particularly to oils, vinegars, etc. Rice, semolina, tapioca, and the like should be contained in tins, while

for cereals galvanised tins are desirable, preferably of a rounded shape, and standing on castors in order that their movement may be facilitated. In these tins, however, the lids should be perforated. Tea and coffee require more or less hermetically sealed tins, so it should be seen that tins used for storing these articles have close fitting lids.

The accounts of the storeroom should be kept in a strictly accurate manner, and the whole transactions of this department should be entered in an "in and out" book. Whatever system is adopted it should be of such a character that the smallest item duly appears in the book, as it is only by keen supervision of the passage of goods that a true and proper check can be kept, and this means much to the success or otherwise of the undertaking. The manager should be able to see at a glance the quantity and value of goods supplied to each department daily, and the storekeeper should be held responsible for everything. A receiving book should be kept, and in this should appear everything that enters the storeroom. The "out" or issue book should have the daily transactions recorded on one page, then if any discrepancy occurs it will be more easily traced. Two books may be considered desirable for this purpose—one for the provisions, and the other for domestic goods, but in any case the entries should be made so that the storekeeper, if called upon to do so, would be able to present a complete record of the passage of goods at a short notice. A stock-book should be kept, and in such a manner that there is no fear of supplies running short.

Cold-Storage

The question of storing food during a time of abundance for use at a period when there is no production is always a subject for study. Without efficient apparatus to keep food in such a manner as to ensure its purity during the period of storing, no concern can be conducted with success.

Cold-storage has made rapid progress during the last three decades. There has been placed on the market at different times apparatus to suit all classes of business, and at prices which bring the possession of efficient equipment within the range practically of everyone engaged in business dealing with the handling of food.

Butter, eggs, poultry, meat, and fish are the chief articles of consumption in an hotel to which cold storage applies. No ice is used in the present method of refrigeration, the cold being produced by chemistry and machinery, which is substantially placing large radiators or lines of piping in a room and passing through them brine or some equivalent, reducing the temperature to zero or lower, and producing a clear, dry cold. In other cases the ammonia process, as described in another section, is employed.

While refrigerating chambers are of course the usual thing for the storage of meat, and where expense is not of primary importance and where the establishment is on a sufficiently large scale, a suitable refrigerating plant should be installed. This will preserve food for long periods

without deterioration, but it has its disadvantages, even under the most favourable conditions. If the food should have become tainted before it is placed in the store, the corruption is certain to spread, and to affect other food in the vicinity. Moulds and vegetable bacterial growths form on the walls of the store and in crevices between the tiles or bricks, and give rise to unpleasant smells which are conveyed to other food, giving it an unpleasant taste. The organisms that cause corruption and putrefaction are not always destroyed by cold air, although their development and propagation may be arrested. Development is resumed, however, the moment the temperature of the air rises much above the freezing point and its humidity is increased, and putrefaction sets in at a rapid rate even during the few moments when a door is opened and admits warm air from outside. If the food also is removed for a short time and replaced in cold-storage, it suffers in the process. In a cold-store moisture condenses on the food and assists the growth of organisms and the formation of the products of decomposition, producing organic contamination of the air.

The fact is now gaining recognition that ozone has a real value as an aid to preservation of foods of every description. This is due not only to its powerful deodorising properties, but to its antiseptic value, so that if it be introduced into the air of a food store in proper proportion, it will not only destroy any odours but also in time the causes which produce them, and thus obviate the necessity of introducing fresh air from outside. Attempts have been made to remove smell with the aid of disinfectants, but the remedy proved worse than the disease, since they have an injurious effect on the food and their odour is apt to be assimilated by the stored foods. Ozone has the property not only of preventing the formation of moulds, but also of preventing corruption where none previously existed, and of arresting it where it had already set in. For these reasons it is being used extensively in hotels, restaurants, cold-storage rooms, on board ship and elsewhere. The use of ozone will do much to minimise the fly nuisance in summer. Flies and other insects, which are known to be carriers of disease germs, do not like ozone, and a place in which an ozone generator is at work is free from such pests. For this reason, a small generator should be installed in butchers' and fishmongers' shops, as well as in the servery and kitchen of a restaurant, where trouble often arises through the presence of many flies.

Ozone is useful not only for preserving meat and fish, but for keeping fruit and vegetables in good condition. It has been found that it prevents decomposition and retains the original flavour and characteristics of the varieties with which it is used. There is no admixture of flavour where several varieties of fruit are stored in proximity, but for fruit preservation a good circulation of air is necessary to ensure the best results. In the case of milk, butter and eggs, the cause of deterioration is mainly to be found in the contamination brought about by an impure atmosphere. It is usual to observe in places where such commodities are handled the utmost cleanliness, so far as the utensils and building are concerned.

Yet it is frequently found that the atmosphere is impure with an unpleasant odour, and the purchase of new churns and other vessels has little or no effect, except perhaps temporarily. As a matter of fact, the atmosphere itself is responsible and this can be remedied permanently by the installation of an ozone generator of small size. An advantage of the system, which does not necessarily involve an air-cooling device, since the effect of ozone in food preservation is not dependent upon temperature, is that it is automatic in operation, and requires no attention. It can be installed by any mechanic, is not costly, and will work continuously for any length of time with the minimum of attention. A semi-portable ozone generator and fan of alternating current, suitable for use in a cold-storage room of average dimensions, uses only 40 watts, *i.e.* it can be run for 25 hours before one unit, costing 1d., has been consumed. Such an outfit costs about £10, and is controlled by a four-way rotary switch, providing for changes of speed and volume of ozone generated. It is silent in running and may be placed on brackets or on a shelf. Small portable sets, suitable for use in shops, kitchens and so forth, can be run for 50 hours at a cost of 1d. for current. If, however, an ozone generator is included in the ventilating system, the use of an additional generator is not usually called for, except perhaps in the store rooms where meat, fish, butter and milk may be stored. If a somewhat more powerful generator be provided, the ozone discharged throughout the building will be sufficient to keep the air pure and to keep down the fly pest, while preserving to a considerable extent any food of a perishable nature that may be placed on dishes on the counter, in the window, or on the carving table in the servery and in the kitchen.

Butter, owing to the great amount of moisture contained, must be frozen through, and consequently requires a temperature of 10 degrees below zero. Butter made in June is admittedly the best in the year, and, by the method described above, it is possible to preserve the rich natural flavour until a time of consumption months hence.

Eggs produced during the month of April are kept sweet and wholesome over a time of non-production, and while it is a fact that fresh eggs are better for all round purposes, good cold-storage eggs are not inferior to those placed fresh on the market during the cold, off seasons.

Poultry and game are stored in a temperature of 6 degrees to 10 degrees below zero, by which means this class of goods is kept fresh and wholesome for an indefinite period, depending largely upon the condition when first placed in storage, and the restaurateur and the hotelier is thus enabled to serve his patrons with the prime fancy poultry of September, October, and November during the summer months, and at a time when a lighter meat is required, and when fresh poultry has neither the proper size nor flavour.

Game, owing to the rigid laws, can be killed only at certain seasons. By means of the present scientific storage, it is always available, and its wild, natural flavour is not impaired in the least.

Ocean, lake, and river fish, caught in their respective seasons, with

proper handling may be prepared and consumed months hence without any suspicion by the diner that he is not being served with articles from the briny deep, the cool lake, or the clear running river.

It is important that cold-storage products of every kind, to be wholesome when taken out of storage, must of necessity be perfect stock when first stored. It behoves every purchaser, then, to do business with reputable concerns that handle only the choicest goods.

It is the duty of every purveyor to serve his patrons at all times with the best goods that the market affords, and while his preference is always with the fresh article, there are times when he is compelled to resort to the expedient of using cold-storage foods.

It is quite impossible for the steward to look after every detail of food preparation, and it is just at this point that the possibility of losing the public's favour is dangerously keen.

Butter and eggs are often drawn out before the necessary time, and either stand too long in the receiving room or are placed in a heated room.

Freshly caught fish, poultry, and game no doubt will always hold the favour of the public over the frozen article, and justly so, but this is not so much for the reason that frozen goods are inferior, but because of the lack of painstaking care in their preparation. The process of thawing out must be carried on slowly, carefully, and by immersion in cold, clear water as soon as possible before being served, the theory being that the fish is restored to its original condition in the same natural manner that it was reduced to a frozen article. In no instance should frozen goods be thawed out by a dealer before delivery, as the frequent changes of temperature through which the goods pass while in transit from producer to consumer kill the nutritious elements, and are the most important argument against cold-storage foods, and to this fact also is due the loss of natural spice and flavour, desired most of all and not found lacking in the fresh article, no matter what it is—beef, fish, game, fruit, or vegetable.

CHAPTER II

PURCHASE OF PROVISIONS

IN the purchasing of provisions lies one of the most important features of an establishment. What to buy, how to buy, and the assurance that only goods of the best quality are secured constitute the foremost considerations in the conduct of a successful catering business.

Groceries

Tea.—The purity of tea as retailed in this country is ensured by the fact that all tea is examined by the Customs Authorities before duty is paid on it. Indian and Ceylon teas are more pungent than China and go further. The practice of blending has, however, become so general in the tea trade, that the characteristics of different growths no longer interest the public. The skilful blender aims at producing an article of uniform excellence, and the only practical advice on buying tea is to “taste and try.” Tea must be protected from damp and from contact with highly flavoured goods—coffee, spices, soap, etc. Tea, as well as coffee, cocoa, etc., is not a food in any sense, but only a stimulant. It has, however, some value in preventing waste of tissue.

Coffee.—Considering that this market receives all the finest growths of coffee the world over, it is remarkable that a cup of good coffee should be comparatively so rare in England. The reason must be sought in our faulty methods of preparation.

To begin with the roasting : it should be recollected that this is really a cooking operation—therefore it should take place as near as possible to the moment of consumption. Again, the grinding is for the purpose of breaking open the minute cells so that the aromatic properties may be drawn out by the hot water. Yet how often is coffee kept days and even weeks after it has been roasted and ground, till it reaches the coffee cup stale and flavourless ! No other cooked food is maltreated in this way. Buy your coffee at a shop where it is fresh roasted daily, grind it at home just before you use it, avoid all noxious adulterations (such as chicory), as well as all complicated apparatus. Warm the jug, put in the ground coffee, half fill with boiling water, stir and then fill up. After six minutes pour off steadily ; serve with brown sugar and hot milk.

For quick counter trade and outdoor catering a really good coffee extract has many advantages, yielding a better beverage and more profit than if ground coffee is badly used.

Cocoa.—This term is reserved for the pure product of the cocoa bean (*Cacao Theobroma*), roasted, and with a part of the excessive natural fat removed. It is sold as a fine powder and can be readily mixed with water or milk, boiling, or better still it can be brought to the boil after

mixing, by which method the best results are obtained. Also in solid blocks or broken "nibs," which require to be grated or crushed before infusion. Home roasting and grinding are impracticable in regard to cocoa, so that the best guide in buying is the brand or name of a firm of repute.

Chocolate Powder may be a mixture of cocoa either with sugar only or with sugar and farinaceous material and flavouring. All such ingredients should, of course, be good and wholesome. This again is an item which is better to buy under some reliable label.

Large consumers, however, find it profitable to buy pure chocolate powder, sugar and vanilla separately and prepare their own blends.

Sugar is perhaps the purest article of food in daily use. Lump sugar (cubes), granulated, castor, icing, etc., are produced in such excellence and at prices so low that they offer no field for adulteration. The only sugar that may be impure are raw sugars, but their defects, if any, are those of imperfect purification rather than of wilful admixture. The brown or yellow crystallised sugar, known as Raw or West Indian, or Demerara is a well-refined article which has either retained sufficient of its original colouring to give it the characteristic hue, or has had a colouring syrup added to produce the same effect. No sugar is naturally white, and the highly refined cubes, castors, etc., which are in common use, have lost all their organic cellular nature and are little else than mineral crystals.

On the question of cane versus beet sugar, Mr. Arthur Morris, writing in the *Epicure*, says :

"All commercial sugars, in fact, are the chemical compound C 12, H 22, O 11, plus certain commercially inseparable chemical impurities.

"The difference between cane and sugar beet is thus due to two distinct causes. The more important consists in the proportion of extractives, many of which have a powerful and characteristic taste, found in the molasses, and some of these cling to the refined sugar. It is beyond the refiner's power to prevent it.

"The other circumstance influencing the taste of beet sugar is the large amount of carbonates of potash and soda which it contains as compared with cane sugar. These carbonates exert indirectly a distinct effect upon the flavour of the sugar.

"That cane and beetroot sugar are practically identical seems to be the very general opinion of well-informed men. There is a difference, and it is all in favour of the product of the cane. A single instance will show that it is not merely a question of prejudice. Alkaline carbonates, even in very small quantities, have a marked effect upon the flavour of many beverages which it is usual to sweeten with sugar. For example, two samples of the same blend of tea, brewed under exactly the same conditions, with the single exception that one is infused with pure water and the other with a solution of carbonate of soda in a *thousand* parts of water give beverages differing widely in taste and in aroma. It follows that tea sweetened with sugar containing an alkaline carbonate will not be the same

beverage as that made with a sugar free from such admixture. The same effect is noticeable in coffee, and in several other sweetened drinks. Thus it is not merely the fancy of the epicure (and that is important enough) that tells him that cane sugar is the superior article."

Pepper and other ground spices should be chosen by their smell. The Food and Drugs Acts have been administered for over forty years, but have not yet entirely stamped out adulteration in all its forms. The public, however, have themselves to blame for whatever sophistication still prevails. We cannot all be analytical chemists, but we can all use our sense of smell. There is no known adulterant of pepper, for instance, that will increase its pepperiness, therefore if we insist on peppery pepper we shall get pure pepper. If we only demand a good-looking pepper, something to please the eye, independent of its strength and flavour, we shall most probably be served with an article artificially bleached or blended or faked up in some other way to meet the demand. The same remarks apply to ginger, cinnamon, and the culinary spices. Cases have been known where spent ginger, cassia, and other less obvious adulterants have been used for admixture, but none of these malpractices have had the result of making ginger more gingery, or cinnamon more aromatic. So the best plan is to buy by the nose and not, as so many do, by the eye alone.

Fruit.—The chief grocery dried fruits are now shipped to this country very clean and neatly packed, which adds to their value and keeping qualities. Where the consumption is large, currants may be bought in original quarter cases of about 35 lb., sultanas in boxes of 25 to 30 lb., and Valencia raisins in half-boxes or quarter-boxes 28 lb. and 14 lb. respectively. Malaga, or muscatel raisins are those usually reserved for dessert. Sultanas and Valencias are both frequently bleached by the shippers to improve their appearance; as this invariably detracts from their flavour, it will be well to demand natural fruit, unsulphured. Figs for dessert are usually pulled and flattened; but for kitchen purposes the cheaper qualities, pressed into baskets and having the appearance of small cubes, do very well. Dates for dessert should be bought in small boxes, carefully placed in layers; for kitchen use the pressed cakes will serve, but care should be observed that fermentation has not set up in the mass. All these fruits should be dry, yet soft, with the natural sugary bloom. If they are dry, hard and shrivelled they should be avoided as being old and probably tasteless; if moist and shiny they are in the early stages of fermentation.

Rice.—If required simply to look at, it will be as well to ask for polished rice, an article that has been artificially faced with talc or steatite to make it look nice. If required for eating ask for unfaced rice, containing not more than half per cent. of extraneous mineral matter. Carolina, Java, and Patna are dearer varieties of rice best for curries and *risottos*, but the ordinary Rangoon rice makes very good puddings.

Tapioca.—There again it is possible to buy very fine grade tapioca, but the ordinary flaked tapioca makes excellent puddings.

Biscuits should be bought in small quantities, and in air-tight tins, unless the consumption is large. Some kinds keep better than others, but all lose their crispness and flavour quickly if exposed.

Flour.—Good flour should be creamy white, and quite smooth when pressed flat, also free from specks. The demand for a pure white flour has led to artificial bleaching, a process by which secondary grades are made to look better than they are. You may be sure that the bleacher does not work upon finest grades, they are white enough already without his art. His object is to pass off a whitened article instead of a naturally white one. Whiteness, of course, is not always a sign of excellence—a white face is not always a sign of health. Nature produces very few commodities of pure white, in fact Nature's products are mostly mixtures—often very subtle and difficult mixtures. Instead of asking for a pure white article, one might do better by making one's demand for a natural article.

Canned Foods.—Two invariable rules should be observed in regard to all canned foods.

1st. Turn out the contents of the tin into a dish immediately upon opening the tin excepting only sardines and milk. If the sardines have been preserved with tomatoes, this rule holds good.

2nd. Never make any use of the contents of any tin that has the least appearance of being unsatisfactory.

Tins that are much rusted, which show signs of being blown out, or much caven in at the top and bottom, should be discarded as probably old and defective. If air gets into tins, decomposition sets in, and the gases generated cause the tins to expand; then when the gas forces its way out, the tin collapses.

The canner's art has proved such a boon to humanity that it would be a shame to discredit it altogether merely because of an occasional failure. Not every fresh egg is really fresh. Most of us have met with a bad one some time or other. Not every apple in the basket is really good, some may have a soft spot or grub within. Just in the same way not every tin of food reaches the consumer in absolute perfection, but the proportion of bad tins is so small that it is safe to say the risk with canned foods (and common sense) is less than the risk with fresh foods. The canned food is prepared in a country of abundance, is taken just at the most favourable moment for preservation, is picked over and packed with special care and skill.

The methods in vogue for dealing with fresh foods are very often primitive, unscientific, and haphazard in the highest degree. Had it not been for the canner's art thousands of our population would never have known the taste of an apricot, a pineapple, or an ox tongue. Naturally all canners are not perfection—there are some who pack skimmed milk and label it in such a way as to mislead the ignorant or careless. The words "machine skimmed" have been so construed as to make it

appear that a milk skimmed by machine is better than any other. The fact is that skimmed milk should not be allowed in tins at all, and of skimmed milk, least of all machine skimmed. The machine takes out the milk fat (or cream) much more thoroughly than hand skimming.

Meat

In choosing both beef and mutton see that the flesh has a deep red colour. Good meat has no disagreeable odour. It is firm and elastic, and free from moisture; if moisture exudes the meat is not good; if too lean (except the lean Welsh mutton) it is an indication that the animal has not been properly fed, and the meat is generally tasteless. Meat of good quality is moderately fat; the fat of beef should be slightly yellow and somewhat soft to the touch; that of mutton pure white and firm; if it is at all straw-coloured, or if moisture exudes, the meat is not good. Ox beef is much superior to cow or bull beef. Mutton is in perfection between four or five years old. The breastbones of an animal indicate its age. Before four years the bones are slightly pink; afterwards they become white. Lamb is the best when ten or twelve weeks old; the whole lamb at that age should not exceed 40 lb. When more mature it lacks the delicacy of young flesh, and has not yet acquired the riper flavour of prime mutton. Veal should be chosen from a small animal; if large it is apt to be tough. It is at its best when the animal is eight or nine weeks old; after twelve weeks it becomes rather coarse in fibre, though many consider that veal is still very good when the animal is between four and six months old. When too young the flesh lacks firmness and flavour and the creamy-whiteness, which is one of the chief characteristics of good veal. When in prime condition the fat is firm and white, and the flesh white, delicate and firm in the fibre. If any green or yellow spots are seen, it is not fit to eat. Great care should be exercised in choosing pork and although it is obtainable at any time it is only considered to be wholesome in the winter. The fat of good pork is white and clear, the lean a delicate pink, and the skin thin and smooth.

Horseflesh, it may be as well to mention, is dark and coarse, with little fat in the muscles, the fat being dark and soft, and the whole having a sweetish, insipid odour.

Bacon and Ham

The characteristics of good bacon resemble those of prime pork; the rind should be thin, the lean pink and tender, and the fat firm, with a pinkish hue due to salting. To test a ham run a steel skewer through the middle of the ham to the bone. If the skewer comes out clean and free from any unpleasant odour it indicates that the ham is in good condition, but should the skewer be smeared and the odour unpleasant, the ham should be rejected. Yellow streaks in ham or bacon indicate a more or less rancid condition.

Poultry

In choosing fowls see that they have feet which bend easily, smooth legs, and short spurs. Young male birds are best, and young birds may be known by the brittleness of the beak, the shortness of the spurs, and the softness of the breastbone. Always choose birds with uncut claws; the sinews are easier to remove. Birds with black or yellow legs should be bought for roasting, as they have a richer flavour. On the other hand, white-legged fowls should be chosen for boiling, as they have whiter flesh. The flesh of a bird in good condition is firm and thick, and the skin more or less white, according to variety. When the flesh of a fowl has begun to turn blue the bird should be rejected, for this and a slightly unpleasant smell indicate that the bird is stale. Ducks and geese when young have yellow feet and bills, which, as the birds grow older, become darker and reddish. When freshly killed the feet are moist and soft; they become dry and stiff when the bird has been killed some time.

Game

Great care should be taken in choosing game before it is stripped of its feathers. The wing feathers of a young partridge are pointed like a V; in an old bird they are round at the end like the letter U. Game should be hung by the neck for two or three days; much longer in dry, cold weather. In warm, damp weather the feathers should be sprinkled with pepper to keep away the flies. A bird is ready for use when the feathers may be easily plucked from the inside of the leg. The breast should be firm and plump and the flesh not discoloured, for blue patches denote that the bird has hung too long. English game is in season from the 12th of August till the 15th of March. At other periods the game is of foreign importation.

Fish

Staleness in fish is not easily detected when the fish has been kept on ice; but its apparently fresh condition rapidly changes when once removed from the ice. All fish should be unbruised, clean, firm and stiff; if slimy or flabby they are unsafe. Mackerel and fresh herrings are unfit for use unless quite fresh; the flesh should be plump and firm, the gills red, and the eyes bright and prominent. The flesh of whiting, soles, plaice, and other flat fish should be firm and white. They are best when quite fresh, but may be kept in a good condition for some hours if stored in a cool place; flabbiness and discoloration indicate staleness. Turbot, brill and cod may be kept for a day or two in cool weather, but should be cooked before the flesh loses its firmness. Salmon in prime condition is firm and plump and of a bright reddish pink colour; poor or unwholesome salmon can be recognised by the colour of the meat, which turns yellow or even brown, when too far gone. Unwholesome eels are always distinguished by an offensive smell from their mouths. Fish of medium size should be chosen; the flesh of large fish is often coarse.

Fish is best when cheap and plentiful, for when scarce and dear it is usually out of season.

Vegetables

Vegetables are only absolutely fresh when procured direct from the garden. If packed and carried even a short distance they lose some of their freshness ; if closely packed for any length of time slight fermentation may ensue and give them an unpleasant stale flavour. Cabbages and other green vegetables should be crisp and bright in colour. Pods enclosing peas should be crisp and plump. French beans and scarlet runners should be green and tender. Cauliflowers full and white. Marrows, cucumbers, turnips, carrots, and onions firm. Lettuce should have good hearts and be green and crisp.

Potted Meats

Potted preserved meats of good brands are excellent. Potted ham, tongue, beef, bloaters, etc., are very useful for breakfast or light supper.

CHAPTER III

HINTS AND ECONOMIES

Take Advantage of a Market Glut

THERE is always more or less a glut in the market when the season for any particular class of food is fairly well advanced, and for the more expensive kinds such as game, moor fowl, white grouse or ptarmigan it is desirable to take advantage of it. The same applies when rabbits are cheap and form a daily part of the menu, for then there is usually a surplus of livers, kidneys, and hearts.

By buying at such times and preserving for future use it is possible to provide out-of-season dishes cheaply and also meet emergencies in a way that brings credit to the caterer for quickly made ragouts and pies.

Game and the like should be plucked and the insides thoroughly cleansed with water. The hearts, kidneys, and livers should be set on one side and the frames put on in cold water, with a little suitable seasoning of herbs and spices. Bring very slowly to the simmer and allow to par-boil only. Bone the legs and wings, also remove the backbone and these may go into the stock pot. The rest of the frame and the meat should be filled while hot into hot jars in the following way. Special stew jars with counter-sunk lids are usually used, but failing these fill 3 lb. earthenware jam jars (quite hot) up to within one inch of the top. Press down and fill up to $\frac{1}{4}$ inch from the top with some of the boiling liquor reduced to half its bulk. Cover with a piece of thin paper dipped in brandy and white of egg, cut to the exact inside measurement of the jar. Wipe the inside top of the jar perfectly clean and dry and fill to the top with molten paraffin wax (melted paraffin candles will do). When cool, make sure that the whole is hermetically sealed with wax. If proper jars are used, wax may be run into the lip when jar is cool enough to set the wax.

The paraffin wax is loosened at the edges with a very thin knife when the contents are wanted, and the cake of wax carefully removed. The thin paper being separated, the wax may be re-melted down and used over and over again.

The hearts, livers, and kidneys from game and rabbits should be trimmed free from strings, etc., and dropped into jars three parts full of very hot fat and sealed down with wax when cool enough.

These are very useful for garnishing or preparing occasional light luncheons in a hurry. Green bacon fried with the livers, etc., makes an excellent dish, especially if served with a mushroom garnish finished in Beaune wine. With this instance as an example many uses will occur to the intuitive caterer.

Kidney Substitute

In soups, steak and kidney puddings and pies, a splendid flavour and richness on the palate can be obtained and a great saving in kidney effected by taking some clean, freshly congealed pigs' blood (caught in a large shallow baking tin), adding a handful of rolled oats, salt, pepper and mixed herbs or a fried chopped onion to about 2 lb. of the blood. Place in a saucepan with about a teacupful of water at the bottom and slowly bring to the simmer, stirring well. In a little while the whole will set solid. Mash well with a fork and press into jars. Add about 2 tablespoonfuls to each average-sized pie-dish or to enough thick soup for three persons.

Green Tomatoes

It frequently happens that when hot-houses in glass-house gardening districts have to be cleared at the end of the tomato season a late house of green tomatoes can be had at almost giving-away price. Such a chance should always be taken as two very useful and somewhat unique food products can be easily obtained, which, rightly used, will add distinction to the menu of the caterer who is cute enough to look out for and seize a chance.

Pickling Recipe

Separate the yellow, pink, and otherwise colour-changing tomatoes from the pure green ones. Prick them with a silver fork, after removing the haulm leaves and stalk, and steep them in weak brine (made of a handful of salt to every 3 lb. of tomatoes) for 24 hours. Drain in a colander. Place in a preserving pan and just cover with vinegar, to which $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce whole pepper, 1 eggspoonful of Nepaul pepper, $\frac{1}{2}$ ounce of ginger, and 1 sprig of mace has been added to every pint and a half of vinegar. Bring gently to the boil and then boil (slowly enough to avoid breaking the tomatoes) for 20 minutes. Don't skim while boiling, but when cool enough to handle, pack into glass jars and cover with the warm vinegar after straining it well. This pickle cut in slices makes a tasty *hors-d'œuvre* much appreciated by those who fancy Teutonic or Russian dishes. It is often preferred to saurekraut, served with roast pork. The vinegar gives great zest to piquant soups and gravies. It is not always suitable for gravies, but that the palate must decide.

Recipe for Tomato-Greengage Jam

Wipe the purely green tomatoes with a clean cloth, after carefully removing the haulm leaves and stalk. Prick with a silver fork and place with a little water in a preserving pan. Add 1 lb. of preserving sugar to each 1 lb. of tomatoes. Skim carefully, and when cooked to a pulp separate the skins with the aid of a coarse sieve. This preserve can hardly be distinguished from greengage jam, especially if a small quantity of honey has been added. Mixed with one part of greengage

to two parts of green tomato jam it is an excellent filling for open pastries and of a very delicate green colour. Care must be exercised to avoid the jam catching in the pan, and also to skim well, otherwise the colour and sometimes the flavour is greatly impaired. The tomatoes should be used as freshly gathered as possible.

Fat-Bath for Frying

In the smaller kitchens, and often amongst those who have not had much experience outside their scope, this is looked upon either as a troublesome matter, or is avoided in favour of the grill because of the supposed difficulty of preventing mixed flavouring according to the food being cooked. To those who know, however, this has been proved a fallacy. If the fat is kept boiling, that is to say, is heated until perfectly silent and begins giving off continuously a hazy blue-grey smoke (which is really vaporised fat) one bath will serve for all purposes. In more than one instance in a large and highly esteemed restaurant it can be truly asserted that for years fish, cutlets, chips, larded steaks, and kindred articles were fried continuously in one fat-bath with never a complaint. Of course, the above conditions must be kept permanent, and the best way to achieve this is to work as follows: The bath should be about 2 feet long, 1 foot wide, and at least 9 inches deep. It should have round corners and a copper bottom, if a copper vessel cannot be obtained. It should be heated by two 6-inch gas-ring burners, which are moved slightly every day to prevent uneven corrosion of the bottom. Fit the bath with a hood. If economy is a vital factor let the hood pipe lead into a water-cooled chamber and thence into the chimney or other uptake that creates a draught. Carefully strain the fat perfectly free from all charred matter, etc., every morning after getting fairly hot before bringing to the boil for use. Keep the fat level constantly at about 9½ inches. When not in use but wanted kept hot, cover with a water-jacketed close-fitting lid. Get the fat well boiling before using at any time, and never add enough bulk at once to chill the fat off the boil. Turn up the gas a little each time a batch is put in until the heat is well up again. Fry in a wire basket or on a wire cradle. Also use fat free from meat juice and the like, and if the fat is quite free from a fair proportion of pork fat add ½ pint of good olive oil to each 7 lb. of fat put in the bath, adding the oil after the fat is thoroughly melted. Keep skimmed. Butter, of course, cannot be treated in this way as it soon burns.

Spices and Herbs

There is usually considerable laxity in this connection, and much clever *chef* work is really due to a full knowledge of the qualities of different spices of the same name or species. A little study devoted to spices and a little experimenting will soon enable a reputation for flavouring and tastiness to be achieved, and the like is one of the greatest trade assets a caterer can have, be it for stews, puddings, pies, or grills. As a guide to the method of grasping this subject, the following hints are

given. Of peppers there are two or three kinds, and special attention should be given to long pepper, a close relation to black pepper, which itself varies in flavouring value according to the grinding and the freshness of the essential oil which gives it its character. Of cayenne there are two kinds, the red and the Nepaul (called yellow). Long pepper is reputed to be the secret of certain celebrated pudding spices. Grind it as wanted in a small hand-mill or castor-mill and try it as the imaginative palate dictates. Black ginger is often far away superior to the bleached white ginger. Nutmegs should always show plenty of oil cells (the dark spots seen on a freshly grated nut) and three separate varieties are sold commercially, chiefly from Java, Ceylon, and Central America. Find which suits your cuisine best. Try a little freshly grated nutmeg on the top of meat pies (other than pork) just before putting on the crust. Mace should be looked on as half-cousin to the nutmeg and pickled walnut. It is the arillus or membrane surrounding the kernel and is therefore very full-flavoured, and although invaluable, needs careful and sparing use. Best employ it in the blade and not ground. Cardamom is almost a forgotten spice. It is related to the ginger family. Choose the Malabar, or the Ceylon variety and try it as a flavouring in cakes and also curries. Touching on cakes, try a hot-water infusion of coriander seeds in Queen cakes and Madeira types. Also for curries remember shredded coco-nut. In the matter of herbs, the mixed variety are common enough, but try borage in sausages, claret and moselle cup, etc., and in stews and pie stock.

Preserving Eggs

While eggs are abundant, some of them should be preserved for the winter. A good plan is to dip them while quite fresh in a weak solution of isinglass, or in melted tallow, though the former is to be preferred. Then bury the eggs upright in sand or sawdust in a cool but dry cellar or dark cupboard. The great thing is to keep the air from penetrating through the shell, and by pursuing the above plan, eggs can be kept perfectly sweet for a long time.

Storing Cheese

The great thing in dealing with cheese is to secure scrupulous cleanliness. Keep a cut cheese wrapped in a cloth, and cut with a piece of twine or a loop of copper-wire kept very clean. Roquefort and soft cheeses, however, should be cut with a sharp knife. Keep soft cheeses in a cool cellar, free from draughts, and covered with a cloth dipped in salted water, or, when flies are dreaded, in water with a little vinegar.

Stiltons should be put in a cool, slightly damp cellar, to ripen. Cover with a damp cloth, to avoid cracking. Sometimes, to hasten ripening, a wedge-shaped piece is cut from the top and a glass of old ale or rich porter is poured in. But this is quite unnecessary if the Stilton can be kept in a damp cellar long enough.

Parmesan, so useful for culinary purposes, is apt to get very brittle.

Keep it in a glass jar or an earthenware jar, covered, and removed from light. Cream cheeses, on the other hand, must not be covered over, or they will become mouldy and acquire a disagreeable flavour. The Swiss and French varieties imported in boxes should be kept therein until wanted.

Gloucester and Cheshire cheeses should be kept in a cool dry cellar or larder away from draughts. If cut, it is well to cover them with a slightly damp cloth.

The average factory-made Canadian cheddar should be put in a cool place, and turned over occasionally. If there are any signs of undue drying, smear the outside with a little butter.

When cutting for use, only have a piece sufficient for a couple of days and place this in a proper cheese dish, with cover. This prevents the cheese getting dry. A Stilton should be cut in half, and the rind must be wrapped in a slightly damped napkin. This helps to keep it in a good condition, and gives a neat appearance.

The best cheeses for cooking purposes are Gloucester, Cheshire, Canadian cheddar, Gruyère, Dutch and Parmesan. The latter, however, is only used as a flavouring agent, to be mixed with a softer, more creamy variety. Grated Parmesan is excellent served with varieties of soups. If grated with equal quantity of Gruyère, it can be spread on bread and butter for cheese sandwiches.

Breakfast Beverages

Tea can be taken strong, provided it is not stewed or allowed to remain too long on the leaves. It is true economy to buy a good quality. People of weak digestion should choose Chinese or Ceylon teas, as these do not contain so much tannin as the Indian varieties. Tea should always be kept in glass bottles or canisters, and well-covered, as air and light soon destroy the flavour. Tea quickly absorbs the flavour of other materials (such as onions or cheese) which may be placed near it.

If it is not possible to have real silver (or the *very best* electro-plate), always brew tea in earthenware. A liberally heaped up teaspoonful per person (and one for the pot) of good leaf is enough. Place this in a warm pot and pour upon it boiling water. The water must be freshly boiled, otherwise the result will be flat. Allow it to stand for from three to five minutes, and then pour off into another pot. It is better to throw away the leaves after the first infusion; if boiling water is again poured upon them, much of the injurious tannin will be dissolved. At breakfast use milk or cream. If taken in the afternoon, plain tea with a slice of lemon is delicious. In France a *bavaroise* of tea is much liked. A strong decoction of tea is mixed with maiden-hair syrup and a little orange-flower water, and a cup of whipped cream is added. Young children should never be given tea.

Coffee should be freshly roasted and ground, if perfection is aimed at. A blend is best; a good Brazilian or Ceylon berry with a small portion of Mocha. The berries should be roasted to a dark brown, and then

ground to a coarse powder. If you buy coffee ready roasted and ground, see that it is kept securely fastened, preferably in a glass jar. Use earthenware pots with a strainer. Place in the strainer a heaped-up tablespoonful for each person; then pour over it boiling water, and let it percolate slowly. Decant the decoction into another well-warmed pot. If milk is to be used with it, the milk should be boiled.

In choosing cocoa, search for a reliable brand, free from added starch or alkalies. Mix the requisite amount of powder with a little milk in a cup until quite smooth; then add to it boiling milk or water. Allow to boil for a few minutes, stirring constantly.

Chocolate should not be scraped with a knife or pounded. Break it into lumps, and dissolve gently in hot water or milk. Use an ounce and a half for each cup. Stir continuously while dissolving. Epicures say that unsweetened, unflavoured chocolate should be used, vanilla being added during preparation, which should take place overnight, for re-heating in the morning. In Vienna, whipped cream is always added to each cup of coffee or chocolate.

Breakfast Cereals

Good breakfast cereals consist of wholemeals, that is the crushed grain merely deprived of its outer woody and indigestible coat. A pure white flour, obtained by fine grinding and discarding of all but the inner part of the grain, is not very rich in nitrogenous matter or salts. On the other hand, if the grain is roughly ground with the whole bran, a considerable portion of the indigestible fibre will be retained, and such meal is not very nourishing, and is apt to prove irritating to the mucus membrane of the digestive organs. A fairly coarse meal, free from woody fibre, is what should be aimed at.

The whole grains of cereals usually contain a fair percentage of fat. Now the most part of this is eliminated in fine flour, but is retained in whole meal. Unfortunately, this fat is apt to become rancid after a time, and thus give an unpleasant flavour to the meal. Modern milling has overcome the difficulty, not by removing the useful fat, but by partly cooking it. This is done by milling with hollow steel rollers, heated by steam. The heat is not sufficient to cook the meal, but quite enough to prevent the fat becoming rancid. Hot-rolled breakfast cereals are, therefore, to be preferred. There are very many patent kinds on the market, and these are usually easy to cook.

We have several wholemeals in general use. There is the wheatmeal, which is nourishing, and possessed of a pleasant nutty flavour. The chemical constituents of a grain of wheat, however, varies considerably, according to the description of grain and the locality of growing. Oats are rather more uniform, and contain more fat. Fairly coarse oatmeal possesses a delicious flavour. Maize, or Indian corn, is the next favourite. There are some hundreds of varieties of maize, but the best is grain which produces a coarse rich yellow meal. Its only drawback is the excess of fat and nitrogen contained in well-grown maize.

To prepare porridge, place a little water in a jacketed saucepan, and allow to boil, then stir in gradually the meal, about two soup spoonfuls per person. Add a pinch of salt and allow to simmer gently, until the meal has swelled and become soft and palatable. Stir occasionally. Turn out into plates, and serve with milk, allowing individuals to add salt or sugar according to taste. Some people prefer to mix a little golden syrup with the porridge, in which case it should be slightly thinner than if milk only is to be used. Salt and a lump of butter form agreeable seasonings for wheatmeal and maize porridge. Another excellent plan is to stir some dried and candied cherries (or even currants and sultanas) in the porridge while still in the water-jacketed pan. This addition of fruit gives the necessary sugar, and also a pleasant acid flavour.

Cold porridge, by the way, should not be thrown away. When quite firm, cut it into slices, roll in fine flour, and fry in butter to a light golden hue, and serve powdered with sugar, or together with a sweet jam or wine sauce.

Wholemeals make excellent puddings. They can be mixed with dried fruits and suet, and either boiled or baked. A mixture of three parts of wheat or oatmeal and one of boiled chestnuts, with a few dropped almonds, and a handful of sultanas, together with one part of finely chopped suet, and sugar to taste, makes a delicious pudding either boiled or baked.

Frumenty is a dish prepared with fresh wheat, taken from the ear when still partly green; the wheat is "cracked" by being placed over a fire. It is then gently stewed, and served up with milk.

In America and the South of Europe, the maize when just turning yellow on the still green cob is eaten, and mightily appreciated. The maize grains may be stripped off the cob and then treated like green peas, or the whole cob may be either stewed or grilled. In the latter cases oil butter, mixed with pepper and salt, is poured over the cobs, and the grains picked off with the teeth, just as a continental gourmet picks the bones of game birds.

Culinary Fats

To the uninitiated any kind of fat is good enough for cooking purposes; but as a matter of fact the half-dozen different kinds in general use behave very differently.

The animal fats include (1) butter, (2) dripping (beef, mutton), goose fat, (3) beef and mutton suet, (4) lard. The vegetable fats include (1) olive oil, (2) nut oils, (3) nut butters, (4) cotton seed oils.

Butter is an expensive culinary fat. It is excellent for pastry-making; indeed essential for the best quality. For this purpose it can be blended with a small proportion of purified beef dripping or lard. For frying purposes, butter is not suitable—not merely on account of expense, but because of the amount of moisture contained in it, and the fact that it is soon apt to burn, when it assumes a disagreeable flavour. Butter, however, can be used for "tossing" potatoes and vegetables in the stewpan, after the vegetables have been nearly cooked, either by boiling or

steaming. Butter should always be used in preparing sauces of every description. Butter can be flavoured by expressing juice from vegetables, and incorporating the fluid with the fat. Parsley, celery, and watercress are used for this purpose, and give a green hue to the butter. Anchovies, sardines, and lobster coral are also incorporated. These prepared butters are useful for certain dishes, and for making sandwiches, etc. Butter, whipped up with sugar, and flavoured with burnt almonds or pistachios, is most useful in confectionery and pastry-making.

Dripping is derived from the superfluous fat melted out when meat or poultry is being roasted, or is obtained by specially melting down fat. Both beef and mutton dripping is excellent for frying purposes. It is necessary, however, that the fat should be sweet and clean. This can be ensured by boiling the fat in plenty of water, stirring it vigorously, and then removing the congealed mass when cold. This can be melted down in a water-jacketed vessel, or by placing it in a bowl in a pan surrounded by water, boiled to evaporate moisture, and run into pots ready for use. When frying, always see that the pan has plenty of fat—sufficient for the articles to be cooked to be able to float about in it freely. The fat should be boiling before anything is placed in it. Good beef dripping can be used with butter for making pastry. Mutton dripping is too hard for pastry.

Suet is the firm fat found in the region of the kidneys of bullocks and sheep. If in good condition, it has a rich yellow hue, tinged with pink, is firm, interspersed with fine white membrane, and has a nutty flavour. Suet is admirably adapted for the making of puddings. It should be separated from the skin and fine membrane, and chopped fine, before being mixed with the flour. If suet has to be kept, roll it, unchopped, in dry flour, and keep it covered in a cool place. Beef suet is sweeter than mutton suet. Of late, several firms have prepared suet by melting it down, purifying it, and forming into compact masses. Such suet is most useful for frying purposes, and can also be chopped up for puddings, but in this latter case care must be taken not to work it into a sticky mass.

Lard is refined pork fat, melted down, and run into bladders. It is, unfortunately, often adulterated with cotton seed and other oils. A liberal amount should be used, and the temperature must be kept up, or otherwise the substance fried becomes soaked with the fat and flabby. For common cakes and the ordinary pastry, one third of lard to two-thirds of butter can be used. Lard is excellent for frying, provided a high temperature is maintained, and the potatoes, fish, etc., fried in it are well drained. Lard is hardly used in pastry-making. It should, however, always be mixed with some butter. The excess of fat left after frying bacon may be used with advantage for frying eggs or thin slices of bread.

Vegetable Oils.—The best-known vegetable oils are the olive, the cotton seed, and the nut. Oils raised to boiling-point, and used in sufficient quantity to form a bath, are excellent for frying. Olive oil is also largely used in cookery for such purposes as making mayonnaise, etc.,

and for the preparation of salad dressings. Olive oils vary in colour from an almost pure white to a deep yellow. They are always thick, have a sweet taste, and easily congeal on the falling of the temperature.

Vegetable Fats.—Certain vegetable fats are coming largely into use. The most commonly known is cocoa butter, which is the excess of fat in the cocoa bean, extracted during the process of manufacturing the cocoa of commerce. If purified, this cocoa butter is splendid for use in confectionery, pastry, etc. Cotton seed oil, solidified, is also used, and so are the fats of other nuts. Many of these vegetable fats are purified and blended, and sold under special names. These are widely patronised by confectioners, pastrycooks and, to a lesser extent, by caterers. If these vegetable fats are used, great care should be taken to ensure their complete sweetness, and as a rule less of the fat should be employed than would be the case if butter or suet were being handled. If too much fat is used, especially if a high temperature in cooking is not possible, a greasy smell and taste will result.

It should be remembered that butter is the only fat which must be used liberally if it be incorporated with food, but only sparing if used for frying purposes. On the other hand, other animal fats, and vegetable fats and oils, should be sparingly used if incorporated with food, and lavishly if required for frying purposes. Suet, however, is an exception; it must often form a comparatively large bulk of certain puddings.

Continental Wrinkles

There is very much to be learnt from Continental methods of catering, which are applicable both to high-class and popular custom. The main thing is not to try to slavishly imitate Continental dishes, but to strive after that variety and tastiness so characteristic of Continental cookery by using what we have indigenous to this country to the best advantage. The great thing is to specialise in some particular line, be it soups, snacks, entrées, cheeses, salads or savouries. Experiment until distinction is attained and then make the fact known (see Art of Advertising). Herein we can learn much from the Continent, and Continental eaters are not the only ones who like to know where they can go to get the best of the particular class of food they happen to fancy at the moment. There is a ghastly monotony about the rank and file of British eating-houses, but try a few judicious departures from the old rut, be it merely by a sauce, a garnish, a vegetable, or an entrée, and it will be found that the most conservative of conservative roast-beef-of-old-Englanders will begin to patronise the so-called innovator. Also do not forget the teetotaller. Though French methods are associated with wines, they are very abstemious, and there is a growing class—including Americans—who unconsciously determine their lunching or dining-place by knowing where a special teetotal drink can be obtained in excellence. Give attention to the Mazagran (a café-au-lait served in a tumbler fixed in a metal holder to save burning the fingers). Select your own receptacle. See it is fitting and characteristic and call it anything you like, if the proper

name is thought too Frenchy—and see the result. One restaurant in Paris has an almost world-wide reputation, simply because it has become known as having, all the year round, twenty-one hors-d'œuvres to choose from. It also makes a point of a fruit cup, made with fresh or canned fruits (according to season) served in pale tinted glass goblets (with long stems), standing on a little plate, which serves to catch the surplus of the cheap champagne with which the goblet charged with castor-sugared fruit is filled to overflowing in front of the customer as soon as it is served. And it pays at 10d. a time. There is nothing else very special about the menu or the wines, unless it is that four kinds of egg dishes are always ready (and there are two hundred ways of cooking eggs) which seems to prove a great attraction to Americans visiting Paris.

Remembering this a few wrinkles may be picked up from the following "British-French" dishes which have been introduced by the writer with appreciation from those who have tried them. Sight is often lost of the fact that the few are just as worth pleasing and keeping as customers with *easily* made dishes as the majority with the more familiar and elaborate dishes. Try serving red cabbage with pork or boiled fowl; also loin of mutton (roast or boiled). To make this, cut up a red pickling cabbage and put it in a large saucepan with four ounces of butter. Stir till steam stops coming off and the cabbage sinks into a compact mass. Meanwhile beat half-a-pint or more of good malt vinegar with a tablespoonful of brown Demerara sugar and a small bag of caraway seeds, until nearly boiling. Then pour over the cabbage. Mix in thoroughly and keep covered and hot until wanted. At first serve a pickle saucerful as a garnish and name it as a vegetable with the above-mentioned dishes in the bill of fare. All new ideas of this nature are best introduced to British customers by naming the two together on the menu, the same as we do the boiled beef and carrots.

Savoury Bake

(British Omelets) is another good thing. Don't pass them off as real omelets or you will disappoint the gourmet and mislead the rank and file. To prepare: Beat the white and yolks of two eggs separately. Mix three tablespoonfuls of self-raising flour to a thick paste with water. Add pepper and salt, then the eggs, and dilute to a thin smooth batter. Melt three ounces of butter or margarine in an eight-inch by one and a half inches enamelled frying-pan and pour in a half-inch layer of batter. Cook same as a pancake, only toss when the first side is lightly done. Have ready as fillings mushrooms stewed in milk and thickened with farina or flour. Also minced tongue and ham, or cooked pigs' fry, calves' liver, etc. Spread a decent portion on one half of the faced batter and when nicely browned on the underside turn the plain half over to the layer of filling and serve hot. This is enough for two or three persons. The same batter with mixed herbs only, served with French bread, good butter, and any light beer such as Bass's No. 6 or table ale, makes an excellent light lunch or déjeuner. For breakfasts

and teas try barely ripe blackberries stewed with a little sugar and cayenne, or cranberries, whinberries, or pickled nasturtium leaves and pods served with lean Yorkshire or Westphalian ham and brown bread and butter. It is better with bottled stout or coffee than with tea or wine. For snacks try specialising on home-made cream cheeses as specified in the Board of Agriculture's leaflets. With a little experience a very good imitation St. Brie can be produced. Also as a snack offer orange marmalade or apricot jam with Gorgonzola cheese, and serve 1d. portions after trial.

Salads

These are much neglected and are worthy of cultivation. Wash all vegetable ingredients lightly but well and dry on clean glass-towels. Break up—don't cut with a knife. Use only the best genuine olive oil and *wine* vinegar. It pays. Mix by tossing over lightly with wooden spoons. With lettuce, dandelion or chicory (endive) rub a split clove of garlic on a piece of freshly-made dry toast and place at the bottom of the bowl for half a minute before adding the oil and vinegar. Then remove the toast. Toss altogether well from the bottom to the top. The one piece of toast will do four or five portions. The following afford a few ideas for novel salads eaten as separate dishes.

(1) Cucumber in small one-eighth inch cubes, onions and tomatoes (skinned and cored). Dress with oil, lemon juice, pepper and salt.

(2) Cold boiled new potatoes sliced, or old potatoes and green peas, boiled celery (root end) and a little mixed dandelion leaves or cabbage lettuce. Usual dressing, after garlic-toast treatment; or add minced onion to the potatoes.

(3) For the celery and greenstuff substitute boned and bruised pickled herrings with a few capers, in the above (No. 2).

(4) Boiled artichokes, boiled butter beans or flageolets, a little chopped gherkin and a hard-boiled egg. Serve with Tarragon vinegar and oil, or mayonnaise.

Ham and cold chicken or game, anchovies or sardines may be boned and bruised, and served with any of the above. Only avoid mayonnaise with anchovies and sardines.

Sauces

A good sauce is really the making of many a dish; without it not a few would be tasteless and insipid. At one time the thrifty housewife prided herself on her skill in concocting recipes of sauces, the secrets of many of them being jealously guarded and handed down from generation to generation. Some of them have been put on the market, and have become well-known proprietary articles whose names are household words. It has been said by a French gourmet that the English people are a nation who use only one sauce; and that one they do not know how to make. However true this may have been at one time, it certainly is not true to-day, although it must be admitted that the French culinary art

can show a greater wealth of sauces and relishes in the creation of dishes than suits the taste and palates of English people generally, who prefer simpler dishes. It is common knowledge that almost every county has its own particular sauce, Worcester sauce and Yorkshire relish being instances that come to our mind; and it cannot be gainsaid that the art of making home sauces has gone out of favour since these and other excellent sauces are so readily obtainable everywhere.

The making of sauces and variations of flavouring is still a very practical proposition for the caterer, because, apart from the economy in making their own supplies, there is the great opportunity of creating some distinctive sauce likely to attract custom by reason of its peculiar piquancy so much as to be talked about, and thus gain notoriety or fame. Instances of this sort of thing in the catering world are more numerous than in almost any other profession, and elsewhere we have had occasion to emphasise the importance of striving for originality and making it so distinguishing a feature of your service as to get it talked about. The writer knows of a tea-room in a Provincial town near London whose reputation was established solely on a particular form of blancmange jelly, the secret of which was jealously guarded, but which brought such custom to the place, begun on the smallest and least pretentious scale, that in a few years it grew to be a palatial and favourite rendezvous even for Londoners, although it was in a town twenty miles away.

Jam-making

A notable economy can often be effected by preparing home-made jams and bottled fruits, whether the fruit is bought in a plentiful market or grown on the home farm. If well made and properly labelled these preparations will add to the reputation of the establishment while bringing in a higher profit than the manufacturers' supplies.

It is of primary importance in jam-making and preserving to ensure perfect cleanliness throughout the processes, to use only sound fruit and vegetables, and to take the utmost care to secure for the finished product thorough sealing from the air, to prevent subsequent fermentation.

Unless the caterer possesses special equipment, enjoys a very large trade and runs his own fruit-farm, it is wiser to confine attention to the most commonly used preserves, leaving specials and jellies severely alone, as these require great care and are in smaller demand.

As regards general equipment, if the jam-making is to be on a comparatively small scale, copper or aluminium pans to hold from twenty to forty pounds will do, to be heated over gas or coal, the former for preference, as the heating is more under control. For more extensive operations steam-jacketed pans to hold about 112 to 120 pounds are best, to draw their supply either from a special boiler or from that serving the steam ovens and hot-closets. Only, with these steam-jacketed pans the simmering process will have to be continued rather longer than with pans over direct flames, partly owing to the greater mass of fruit and partly to the lower temperature secured. On the other hand, the boiling process

is safer, as it is practically impossible to burn or caramelise the preserves in the steam-jacketed pans.

Other appliances necessary will be orange-slicing machines, apple and pear corers, skimming and other ladles, and graters for spices.

Only refined sugars should be used for general purposes, as the moist varieties detract from the fruit flavour. Moist sugars, however, may be used for the commoner kinds of marmalade and for rhubarb and marrow preserves.

Glucose is sometimes used in place of sugar, and being less sweet, a little saccharine added. Although this is cheaper on wholesale manufacturing, it does not make the best quality jams and is not wholesome. The use of all chemical preservatives must also be avoided. For plum preserves a little honey can be used, which helps to prevent fermentation.

It will only be necessary to give detailed recipes for a few of the typical jams, such as those suggested above. Of first importance among these will be—

Marmalade.—This is one of the most popular (and, if properly made, economical) stand-bys, both as a table preserve and for cookery purposes. The best qualities are made with the Seville, or bitter, orange, but quite good preserves can be made with mixtures of bitter and sweet oranges, and a special variety with tangerines. Variations are also obtained by the treatment of the fruit. Some marmalades are made from the whole fruit; others consist almost entirely of jelly. In others the peel is shredded very fine, is sliced rather coarsely, or is cut into cube form. By these means both appearance and flavours are altered. Two or more variations may be adopted, or a particular kind made a speciality. The following will serve as general directions, capable of modifications, such as mixing sweet and bitter oranges, adding a few lemons, making a thick preserve or a transparent jelly with a few shreds looking like threads or a few cubes.

(1) **HOUSEHOLD.**—For every twelve fair-sized Seville oranges take ten pounds of loaf sugar. Cut the oranges into quarters and remove the pips, then slice thinly and soak for twenty-four hours in 10 pints of cold filtered water. Keep the pips and tie up in a muslin bag. Place these with the slices and liquor in a preserving-pan. Bring to the boil slowly and continue until the skin is tender. Add the sugar and boil for about two hours, stirring well and constantly. Marmalade is very apt to burn. When it begins to thicken pour a spoonful on a saucer, and if this becomes a jelly on cooling, the preserve is ready. Remove and pour at once into clean, dry jars, and when cool cover and tie down.

(2) **CHOICE.**—Halve twelve Seville oranges, squeeze out the juice and pips and remove all the pulp with a silver spoon. Put the scooped-out shells to steep for twelve hours in just enough cold filtered water to cover them, adding a tablespoonful of salt to every quart of water. After steeping, place the whole in a pan and boil until tender. Strain through a sieve, slice the rinds thinly, add to them for every pound one and a half pound of sugar, and for every pint of strained juice one pound of sugar. Place the whole, with the pips tied up in a muslin bag, in a pan, bring

to the boil, and boil for thirty to forty minutes, stirring the whole time. Remove the muslin bag and pour into jars.

Lemon marmalade can be made in the same way, but with the addition of a little more sugar. It is quite useful for pudding and pastry-making. Tangerine oranges also make a dainty marmalade, using rather less sugar.

Strawberry Jam.—Use sound ripe fruit, if for table preserve selecting medium or small-sized varieties, as the fruit should be kept whole as much as possible; for cooking purposes broken fruit does not matter. Fruit for jam-making should be picked on a hot, dry day. Remove the stalks, and for every pound of fruit take three-quarters of a pound of sugar. Place the sugar in a pan in a slow oven and boil the fruit for thirty minutes, stirring well; then add the warm sugar and boil again for thirty minutes. The flavour is considered to be improved by adding a pint of currant juice to every four pounds of fruit; but these should never be done with the small scarlet and alpine varieties, both of which will require a little more sugar than the quantity given above.

Raspberry Jam should not contain whole fruit. Pick carefully and weigh against an equal amount of sugar. Boil by themselves for fifteen minutes, mashing well. Remove from the fire, stir in the warmed sugar and then boil for thirty minutes.

Currant Jam.—(1) Wash and pick red currants and boil for fifteen minutes. Add an equal weight of warmed sugar and boil for thirty minutes. A delicious mixture is made of one pound of raspberries to four pounds of red currants. (2) For black currants proceed as above, but if thoroughly ripe use four pounds of sugar to every five pounds of fruit. A useful mixture for puddings and tarts consists of one pound of rhubarb, cut small, to every four pounds of black currants. In this case add a pound of sugar to every pound of fruit.

Plum Jam.—Most plums, black, red, yellow, white, and green, will make good jam. Mixtures should be avoided, though for cooking purposes a small proportion of white or green plums can be added to greengages. Boil the fruit for fifteen minutes, and then add three-quarters of a pound of warmed sugar to every pound of fruit and boil for thirty minutes. If greengages are not very sweet, or there is an admixture of other plums, a little honey will improve the flavour. Add this about five minutes before removing the pan from the fire.

Apple Jam.—Pare and core the apples and cut into quarters. Place in a pan and pulp; then add equal quantities of warmed sugar and boil for about forty-five minutes. A good mixture is made of apples and blackberries.

Blackberry Jam.—Blackberries should be washed and picked and placed to steep in a stone jar with a little water for several hours; then boil for fifteen minutes. At this stage an equal weight of sugar is added, but for a choice preserve before this is done the pulp is passed through a coarse sieve to remove the pips; then boil for thirty minutes.

Rhubarb Jam.—Scrape firm sticks of rhubarb and cut into small

pieces. Place in a pan to simmer slowly until reduced to a smooth pulp ; then add gradually an equal amount of sugar, stirring well, and boil for thirty minutes.

This jam can be added to black-currant jam, and will also be found very useful for puddings and the filling of tartlets.

Vegetable Marrow Jam.—Take firm and young vegetables. Peel, remove the seeds, cut into small pieces, place in a bowl with a lemon for each two large marrows. The lemons must be shredded and the pips removed. Add three-quarters of a pound of sugar to every pound of fruit and steep for twelve hours. Then boil slowly for two hours, together with shredded ginger (quarter ounce to every two pounds of fruit). A better result will be obtained by using preserved ginger with syrup and one tinned pineapple (with juice) for every two vegetable marrows.

While this is not a favourite table jam, it is very useful in the kitchen for puddings and pastries, and will mix well with many other jams when required for cookery purposes. It is the cheapest of all preserves.

Bottling Fruits and Vegetables

Just in the same way as it pays the caterer to make his own jams of the more ordinary kinds, so it will be worth while for him to bottle fruit and vegetables when these are abundant and cheap for winter use.

The fruits most suitable for preserving are apples, apricots, cherries, currants (black and red), blackberries, gooseberries, loganberries, plums of all kinds, raspberries, rhubarb and strawberries. The last two require peculiar care, both in selecting whole, medium, ripe fruit, and in treating them. All fruit should be sound, without broken skins. However, cherries may be stoned, and apricots, peaches and nectarines halved and the stones removed. If this is done, about a third of the stones should be split open and the kernels added to the fruit. Some people skin these fruits, but this should be done only just before bottling. Silver or stainless steel knives should alone be used. Other fruit should be topped and tailed. Rhubarb should be cut to pieces of uniform size, either stalks to fit into the bottles up to the neck, or in small pieces. Mixtures of fruit in one bottle are not advisable.

Fruit may be preserved in plain water or in syrup, made by dissolving cane sugar in filtered water, using half-pound per quart for sweet fruit and three-quarters to one pound for the more acid kinds, such as currants, gooseberries, and rhubarb.

The most suitable vegetables for bottling are, in their order, asparagus, peas (shelled), French beans, young scarlet runners, young cos lettuce, and vegetable marrow. Cauliflower sprigs (of fair size and very close growth) may also be treated. Other vegetables are scarcely worth touching, except for pickling. All the above are preserved in unsalted, filtered water, and can be used as ordinary fresh vegetables. Very little preliminary treatment is required. The asparagus must have the stalks scraped and cut to the proper length ; beans and scarlet runners topped and tailed, and wiped if necessary. Vegetable marrows if quite small can

be preserved whole, but better results are obtained by cutting into quarters, peeling and removing seeds and pith. If large, cut into rather thick strips. Lettuce should have the stalks cut off and the outer leaves removed. Cauliflowers should be divided into sprigs of suitable size, only the very close-grown being selected.

Both fruit and vegetables when required should be turned out of the bottles only just before use, and must be cooked at once. Bottles should not be left open for more than a couple of days at the utmost, though with fruit preserved in sugar three or four days will not matter. So it is advisable to choose bottles and jars of sizes suited to the preserves and to the demands of the establishment.

Preserving is done by sterilising by means of heat, and for this purpose the equipment required is quite simple and by no means costly. The great aim is to use hermetically sealed vessels while the water is still steaming. So it is necessary to have strong glass wide-mouthed bottles and jars with suitable covers. Different kinds of bottles and jars are made, fitted either with metal or glass caps and spring fasteners, or screw tops. All require rubber rings as well.

For the heating of small quantities a large circular pan or a fish-kettle will do, but if these are used it will be necessary to use a false wire bottom on short feet, or to place in the pan a three-quarter inch board, to act as a stand and prevent the bottles cracking. It is also a good plan to wrap a wisp of hay round each bottle. Water should reach the necks, and then the pan can be placed over a fire or gas-ring and brought slowly to the boil, and kept at a temperature of from 165° F. to 170° F. for twenty minutes for small soft fruit, and vegetable marrows and lettuce, and at 170° to 190° F. for twenty minutes for other fruit, with twenty-five minutes for vegetables. The bottles or jars are then sealed, great care being taken to have the rubber ring on straight and the covers thoroughly fastened down, as the bottles must be made perfectly air-tight while hot. Vessels that are imperfectly sealed should be emptied and the contents re-sterilised. Fair success can be obtained by heating in an oven, though heat control is more difficult by this method, and there is some danger of under or over-treatment.

For larger operations circular or rectangular sterilisers, to contain from 18 to 120 bottles, can be bought. A type described by the Board of Agriculture as suitable for market gardeners and small-holders is made of galvanised iron, one of medium size measuring four feet long by two feet wide and two feet high, and is raised on low feet. The apparatus consists of a container and a galvanised-iron plate cover fitting over a number of bolts on to the upper flange of the container and fastened down by means of winged screws and provided with two handles. It has a tube for the insertion of a thermometer, as well as a perforated vent, acting as a safety-valve. Steam is introduced from a boiler through a pipe with a well at the side, connected with a perforated pipe running round the bottom. Another pipe with cock is connected to the water supply to admit cold water, also at the bottom. There is an overflow pipe at the requisite height and a

draining tap at the bottom. The bottles or jars rest on a movable perforated sheet, on ledges two inches above the steam pipes. In use, the steriliser is fully charged, and the cover screwed down tight. The thermometer is then inserted through the tube (the bulb resting in a vessel of water) and steam is admitted until the desired temperature is reached and then regulated to maintain it for the requisite time. It is then shut off and the cover removed so that the bottles may be sealed while the steam circulates round them. For this work the operator must wear stout gauntlet gloves, or gloves fastening under strong linen or leather overall sleeves. This done, steam and water are admitted together, so as to reduce the temperature gradually and prevent breakage. The steam is slowly shut off and water alone admitted. Then shut off, drain, remove the bottles and re-charge. If the same steriliser is to be used for the treatment of both bottles and jars, of different heights, it will be necessary to have two overflow pipes, the lower one with tap, as water must not be allowed to reach above the shoulders of the vessels.

Fruit Pickles

Immature fruit need not be wasted. Practically all of them will make dainty pickles. They may be steeped in strong brine for twenty-four hours, drained, then covered with vinegar flavoured with peppercorns, tarragon, etc., to taste and boiled for thirty minutes, bottled hot and carefully sealed. Or after steeping take equal weights of fruit, vinegar, and mustard. Mix the mustard in the vinegar, first making it into a smooth paste with a little of the vinegar, and boil. Heating in the steriliser will do as well as boiling, but the temperature should be raised to 200° F. and maintained at that for forty to forty-five minutes.

CHAPTER IV

USEFUL HOUSEHOLD RECIPES

Care of Glass-Ware and Silver.—Brilliant glass, no less than shining silver, is the high-water mark achievement of the ambitious housekeeper, and none too easy to obtain.

Glasses that are not greasy should be merely rinsed in perfectly cold water, containing a few drops of methylated spirit, left for a short time to drain, then rubbed dry with an absolutely clean glass-cloth, and finally polished to a high degree of brilliancy by means of tissue paper.

A glass that has held milk, however, should be soaked for some hours in cold water, then soaked in hot water, and dried in the ordinary way.

When glass gets stained at the bottom, as in the case of bed-room bottles or decanters, the marks may be removed either by vinegar, tea leaves, raw potato, or small shot. Whichever medium is used, it should be allowed to remain in the bottle for some hours, with the addition of a little warm water, and every now and then the bottle should be well shaken. When the stains have vanished, the glass should be rinsed and dried in the ordinary way.

A brush is needed for cleaning cut glass, and also for getting into corners.

All glass should be kept in cupboards, and placed upside down on the shelves to prevent it getting dusty.

As regards silver, it cannot be too strongly emphasised that if this is only properly washed and dried after the daily using a great deal of most unnecessary, and often injurious, polishing can be avoided.

The best possible utensil for washing silver is a *papier maché*, or “pulp” bowl, such as are frequently used in laundries for the washing of fragile garments. The soft material of which these bowls are composed prevents a great deal of scratching.

The water should be as hot as the hands can bear it, whilst the addition of a teaspoonful or so of methylated spirits adds considerable lustre.

It is as well, too, if the water be somewhat soapy, though this is not absolutely necessary, except in the case of very dirty or tarnished silver. A lather may be made by the addition of soap powder, or Lux, or better still, with soap jelly, which consists of ordinary shredded soap dissolved in water, and which has become solid by cooling, and has to be re-melted for use.

The silver should be put into the bowl a few pieces at a time, except in the case of dessert or fish knives with silver or bone handles, which should be soaked instead in a jug of hot soapy water. It should be dried whilst still hot and steaming, not left lying about. If this method be strictly adhered to, and a perfectly dry, clean cloth used for the rubbing,

the silver will retain its brilliancy for a much longer period, and will probably only require an added polish by means of a chamois leather before using.

Occasionally, however, or where silver has been neglected, recourse must be had to polishing pastes and powders. When purchasing these it should be ascertained that they do not contain mercury, which is injurious.

For this reason, home-made plate powder is the safest, and is also the least expensive. It can be made by mixing together powdered whitening and jeweller's rouge, in the proportions of one part rouge to four parts whitening.

The latter, however, should be precipitated, that is, suspended for some hours in muslin in a jar beneath a steady stream of water until the finer particles of the whitening have been washed out into the jar, and the rough, gritty portions left behind in the muslin.

Or precipitated whitening may be used alone, and will be found very satisfactory.

When applying either of these preparations, they should be first mixed to a paste. Water can be used, but methylated spirits will give an increased brilliancy. The paste should be applied with a soft cloth, left to dry for a short interval, and then rubbed off with another cloth. A final rub up with a leather is then all that is needed.

For tarnished silver, such as egg spoons, the stains must first be removed before applying the polishing paste. Salt is a very safe remedy for this purpose. Monkey soap is likewise useful, and will be found serviceable in removing stains from many other metals also, such as brass, copper, pewter, or Sheffield plate.

A great deal can be done to preserve silver when not in use. A satisfactory method for the care of surplus spoons and forks can be carried out by the simple, home-made expedient of a broad strip of doubled green baize, containing rows of pockets opposite one another. The pieces of silver should be wrapped separately in clean tissue paper, and put into the pockets. When these are filled the whole strip can then be rolled up and put away in a cupboard where it will take up very little room. Large pieces of silver such as tea-pots, salvers, etc., need to be tied up separately in bags of baize.

The shelves, drawers, cupboards, and plate-basket, in which silver is kept, should also be lined with baize, and if the silver in use is laid on this carefully there is no occasion for any scratching at all.

Separate inventories should be kept for silver in daily use, and silver in reserve, and both should be checked carefully at regular intervals.

To Mix Mustard.—A pinch of salt, and the same amount of castor sugar, improves the flavour of mustard. If mixed with boiling water instead of cold it will be found to keep moist much longer.

To Improve the Flavour of Coffee.—A pinch of salt added to freshly ground coffee beans often helps to draw out the flavour before the boiling water is added.

To Dissolve Sugared Honey.—In cold weather honey frequently becomes thick and clouded. If stood for a short time in hot water, or near the fire-place, it will soon become clear again.

Use for Egg-shells.—Egg-shells need never to be wasted. They should be washed and dried, and stored carefully away for use, either to act as filtering agents in clear soup or jellies, or to clean bottles and cruets with. For the latter purpose, crush up the shells finely, partly fill the bottles with these and a few soap-suds and warm water, and shake well. Then rinse out with clean cold water, and leave to drain with the necks downward.

Polishing Glass.—A good medium for brightening mirrors or window glass can be obtained from powdered starch or from whitening, mixed to a thin paste with a little cold water. This should be rubbed over the surface and left to dry, then wiped off with a soft cloth, and the glass polished up finally with a dry duster. Care must be taken to prevent the whitening from penetrating between the glass and the frame.

Polishing Stoves.—Those parts of the stove which are in constant contact with the fiercest of the heat soon become so worn and burned that it is difficult to polish them. A piece of lemon, however, rubbed over these worn parts before applying the blacklead will help to secure an excellent polish with very little labour. Ordinary blacklead can also be greatly improved in lustre by the addition of a little powdered alum moistened with vinegar.

Washing Gilt China.—No soap or soda of any kind must be used for washing china that is decorated with gilt. The china must be merely rinsed in warm water which will help to preserve the brightness of the gold, and prevent it from fading.

Sponging Palms.—*Aspidistras*, palms, ferns, and similar indoor plants, can be kept fresh and green if their leaves are sponged frequently with a little diluted milk and water. The milk gives gloss, and helps to prevent the brown withered patches which often appear on leaves that are only water sprinkled.

To Whiten Ivory.—Discoloured handles of knives, or piano keys, can be whitened with a little fine sand or knife powder applied with a soft wet rag. The sand must then be washed off with a little milk, and the ivory finally polished with an old piece of silk, or still better, a chamois leather. Stains on ivory may be removed with a little whitening moistened with lemon juice, or with nitric acid, one part acid to ten parts water.

To Clean Bronze.—Bronze figures and ornaments that require cleaning should first be well dusted, using a brush for any intricate parts, then rubbed all over sparingly with sweet oil, and finally polished with a chamois leather.

Clogged Pipes.—House pipes which have become stopped up through dirt, or neglect, may be cleared by pushing down equal quantities of salt and soda mixed together. A little later the pipe should be thoroughly

flushed with boiling water to melt the soap which will form on the inside of the pipe, being composed of the soda and grease.

Care of Japanned Ware.—Great heat should be avoided when washing japanned ware, as it will cause the japanning to crack and wear off. Lukewarm water only should be used, with plenty of soap-suds if the japanning is spotted or greasy, and the japanned ware dried carefully and rubbed up with a soft cloth dipped in flour. A leather or Selvyt may be used finally. Stains can be removed by the application of a little salad oil.

Soot Stains on Carpets.—Soot spilt on a carpet must be seen to at once as it is very difficult to remove. The most effective way is to sprinkle the part with dry salt, mixing it carefully and lightly with the soot. The mixture should be left for a while and then taken up with a soft brush, and the carpet itself brushed up briskly and rubbed with a cloth dipped in ammonia and water.

Stained Marble.—Stains caused by recently spilt liquids can often be removed by a vigorous application of Sapolio or Monkey soap. The deeper ones, however, are more obstinate. They may be removed by wetting the spots with some strong acid, such as sulphuric or oxalic, but this must be rubbed off again very quickly to prevent the acid doing further mischief.

To Clean Copper and Brass.—Both these metals respond to the same treatment. One method of cleaning is to scrape a little bathbrick to a powder, moisten it with paraffin oil or vinegar, and rub it thoroughly on to the metal, rubbing off the mixture with another piece of flannel, and polishing with a soft duster. A second method is to use Sapolio or Monkey Brand soap, polishing finally as before. For neglected copper, finely-powdered emery may be used successfully with oxalic acid. Verdigris can often be removed by washing the utensils with a solution of salt and vinegar, using as much salt as the vinegar will dissolve.

Cleaning Leather Upholstery.—The dirt must first be rubbed off with a little warm water and soap, and the leather carefully dried. A glossy surface may then be obtained by rubbing the material with either warm milk or a little white of egg, and when nearly dry, polishing with a soft cloth.

To Clean Gilt Frames.—White of egg gently rubbed on with a feather will remove specks of dust and fly marks; if very dirty rub all over with spirits of wine, and wash with good soap.

To Clean Mosaic Halls.—Once a week wash with soap and water, and every three weeks rub in a small quantity of boiled linseed oil with a flannel.

To Clean Polished Wood.—Mix equal parts of wax, soda, and soap. The wax and soap should be shaved and dissolved in boiling water. Stir frequently and add the soda. Put the mixture in a bottle and closely cover; stir constantly until cool. This may be applied to floors, furniture, marbles, tiles, bricks, etc. It will remove ink from polished surfaces.

To Clean Marble.—Take three ounces of pearl-ash, a cake of whiten-

ing, and three pints of water. Mix together, and boil for ten minutes. Rub the paste well over the marble, and let it remain for twenty-four hours. Then rub it off again, and the marble will be quite clean.

To Clean Looking-Glasses and Mirrors.—(1) Apply methylated spirits with a sponge; dust over the glass the finest sifted whitening, rub it off with a clean piece of linen, and polish with a leather. (2) Pour into half a pint of boiling water three tablespoonfuls of vinegar, then drop into it a piece of chalk weighing about two ounces. It will sink to the bottom, but it will give the water a milky colour. The fluid must then be poured off and strained before all the chalk has quite settled. Smear this liquid all over the mirror, and when it is half dried rub it quickly with a piece of fine linen, and with a little perseverance the glass will be as good as new.

To Clean Carpets.—Carpets that have become dull through wear or have been stained can easily be freshened after beating. Stretch them flat on the floor and go over them carefully with clean flannel dipped in a solution of two ounces of common yellow soap and a quarter of an ounce of soda to three gallons of warm water. The carpet should be rubbed over quickly, a piece at a time, not using too much moisture. Before the part washed dries, go over it with another flannel dipped in clean lukewarm water. Repeat the cleaning where necessary. Hang up in the air to dry thoroughly before laying down.

Polish for Iron.—Mix half a gill each of turpentine and salad oil, and add a small quantity of fine emery powder. Lay it on with a flannel and rub it off with a cloth.

Washing Matting and Cane Chairs.—To restore the colour to white wicker-work chairs rub damp salt into the weaving. Pails of water should be thrown over the basket-work to wash out the salt and dirt, and the chairs can then be left to dry in the sun. Matting washed with salt in this way will be greatly improved.

Prevention of "Steamed" Windows.—Caterers, pastrycooks, and others are frequently troubled by "steamed" windows in cold weather. This interferes with any window display attempted. The use of gas-jets alight near the windows as a rule only aggravates the nuisance. The only effective remedy is to provide some moisture-absorbing device. Probably the best and most easily applied of these is the use of salicylic acid in open jars placed at the base of the window, and if possible on shelves or brackets half-way up. Ornamental jars or saucers can be utilised, and in any case their presence can be concealed without difficulty.

Marking-Ink.—Dissolve nitrate of silver in distilled water and add liquid ammonia and sage green to colour. Use a quill, or a gilt pen when little marking has to be done. This ink will not do for rubber pads, but may be used with a brush and stencil.

To Wash Chamois Leathers.—Chamois leathers used for cleaning glass, for polishing and for rubbing metals, if washed with a little care, will last a long time. Wash in a strong lather of mild soap and water;

rinse in hot and then in lukewarm water. Wring by folding in a rough towel and then twisting; dry quickly, and then pull and stretch until soft. Soda must not be used, but a little borax may be added to the lather. First rinse in water for very dirty leathers.

Polish for Stained Floors.—Scrape beeswax (the unbleached yellow wax) finely and fill a cylindrical stoneware jar a quarter way up. Add about double the quantity of turpentine, and melt slowly on a hot stove, stirring well. Add more turpentine to make up into a thickish paste.

Destroying Mould in Cellars.—When mould appears in cellars, either on the floors or walls, mischief will result. Destroy by blowing through a pair of bellows finely powdered unslaked lime, seeing that the powder is well sprinkled over floor, walls, joists, and in every crevice. This should be done on a damp day, or if the walls are dry they must be sprinkled with water before applying the lime. Quicklime kept in a box and occasionally stirred will do much to keep down dampness in a cellar. Whitewashing should follow the process of lime-sprinkling, being repeated as occasion demands.

To Remove Rust from Steel.—Rust can be removed from steel fire-irons and other articles by rubbing the whole surface with petroleum, wiping this off, and then applying sweet oil. Allow to remain thus for a day or two, then scour with finely powdered unslaked lime. Polish with a soft rag. When putting away steel articles of the kind, first smear with an oily rag, wrap in newspaper, and then in some woollen material.

Fly Killer.—A harmless but effective fly-killing mixture is prepared thus: Mix half a teaspoonful of finely ground black pepper and double the quantity of brown sugar in a little diluted condensed milk. Place in saucers or deep plates.

CHAPTER V

WINES, BEERS, AND OTHER BEVERAGES

THE percentage of alcohol in wines depends upon the amount of original sugar in the grape, the amount of sugar added and the method of fermentation. Ripe grapes, which have been exposed to plenty of sunshine, may contain nearly forty per cent. of sugar, while on colder soils in less genial lands the percentage of sugar will drop to ten or twelve per cent. The flavour of wines is due to the ethers in the juice, which are developed by fermentation and under lapse of time. New wines are always deficient in strength and flavour. The red colour of certain wines is due to a pigment contained in the skins; in red wines, this is retained by keeping the skins during fermentation of the "must," while in white wines they are removed. After long standing, red wines tend to deposit their pigment, thus becoming lighter in colour, which accounts for "tawny" port, which ranges from a red-brown to a fine amber tone.

The best wines are far from being those which contain the most alcohol; as the superiority of Champagne, Bordeaux, and Burgundy growths over those of Narbonne, Béziers, and Montpellier demonstrates.

The wines of the South of France are very rich in alcohol, but are not generally appreciated when taken alone. They are, however, very valuable for mixing with lighter wines. While the percentage of alcohol in natural wines is seven to eight, popular taste frequently demands that certain wines should be "fortified" by the addition of spirit, so as to raise the strength up to twenty, or even more. Wine, as it grows older, will, if it be well corked, increase the quantity of alcohol which it contains. This partly explains the greater strength of the older of two wines made from grapes grown in the selfsame district.

Wine Service

The fashion of excessive wine drinking at meals has greatly diminished since the days of our "three-bottle" ancestors. The classification of wines during that era was usually as follows:—

Hors-d'œuvre.—Chablis or Sauterne.

Soup.—Sherry or Marsala.

Fish.—Hock or Sauterne,

Entrées, etc.—Claret or Burgundy.

Roasts, etc.—Champagne.

Dessert.—Port, Claret, or Madeira.

Though this arrangement, it is said, found favour with the late King Edward VII., a variety of selection such as the above is seldom seen nowadays.

The correct order of serving wines (although a different wine with every course is not always in favour) is as follows:—

With the *hors-d'œuvre* (oysters, caviare, herring fillets, pâté de foie gras, timbales of egg, crab or lobster, etc.), white Burgundy or Sauterne may be offered. With the soup, a glass of Sherry, Madeira, or Marsala is on special occasions served. A selection of Rhine wines, Hock, or Moselle (which latter has come into fashion at this juncture of the meal) is "the right thing" with the fish. At the next course, the *entrée*, begins the reign of the red wines, in the form of Bordeaux or Claret. The correct beverage with joints or removes is Burgundy, while with poultry or game Champagne is the rule but Rhine wine is sometimes served. From now to the close of dinner, Champagne is the most popular and most favoured of all wines. It is, however, very seldom nowadays that this order of serving wines is strictly observed; the consumption of wines has considerably decreased, and rightly so. For ordinary occasions Claret or Hock, or Moselle and Champagne, find favour with most diners.

The proper serving of wine is a highly important factor in the correct estimation of its qualities. Handling and glasses, as well as surroundings and temperature, intimately affect its flavour. Temperature is one of the first considerations, it being generally conceded that red wines should be warm, as compared with the white wines, which should be cooler, and, as some prefer, even iced or refreshed on the ice before being drunk. Champagne, for instance, if kept in a cellar at a uniform temperature from forty to forty-five degrees, retains its good qualities longer than if kept at a higher temperature. Wines which are served cold should have their temperature lowered in the bottle, not in the glass. This is effected by laying the bottle on ice, and the way this is done will soften or harden it to a degree. A good plan is to thrust the bottle into the ice neck downwards, and to fill up the hollow in the bottom of the bottle with rock salt. The wine is brighter in drinking than if put in the ice bottom downwards. To moderately cool Sauterne and Rhine wines brings out their bouquet and improves their flavour. Claret and Burgundy, on the contrary, should be drunk milk-warm, as this brings out their body and diminishes any natural astringency. Both should be kept in the dining-room some little time before serving. Port, Sherry, and Madeira lose in body and flavour by being chilled; Port, especially if exposed to cold, becoming harsh, thin, and acid. The usual temperature of degrees Fahrenheit at which the various kinds of wine are poured out is as follows:

| | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|------------|
| Sherry and Marsala | . | . | . | . | . | 40 degrees |
| Sauterne or other White Claret | . | . | . | . | . | 50 " |
| Claret | . | . | . | . | . | 65 " |
| Burgundy | . | . | . | . | . | 70 " |
| Chablis and other White Burgundy | . | . | . | . | . | 45 " |
| Champagne | . | . | . | . | . | 35 " |
| Port | . | . | . | . | . | 55 " |
| Madeira | . | . | . | . | . | 65 " |

Decanting or jugging of non-effervescing kinds is another important item in the service of wines, most wines being considerably improved by this process. Indeed, it has been asserted by wine experts that the ordinary wine-drinker wastes about one-third of the value and enjoyment of his wine by allowing it to be served in the bottle. Decanting not only expands those ethereal fragrances collectively termed the bouquet, but avoids disturbing the sediment, to which even the best wines are liable.

While the orthodox wine lists are somewhat restricted as to area of origin, wide-awake caterers will find it to their advantage to go a little further afield. Many of the Italian wines are both cheap and excellent. The best known are the Chiantis and Barrollos with the still and sparkling Astis. Several of the Greek wines are worthy of notice. Californian wines are good, though lacking in the delicacy of European vintages. Our own Colonies produce delicious wines, whose slight want of mellowness and fine bouquet is only detected by connoisseurs. For ordinary purposes both Cape and Australian wines could be introduced with advantage to all concerned, though they are somewhat more full-bodied and a little coarser than European brands. The Tintara port has distinct merits. All these usually show a good margin of profit. However, on this important side of the question much may be said and readers should carefully study the last paragraph of this chapter.

Cellarage

For the caterer or hotel keeper to keep a large and varied stock of wines on hand is not only difficult but is not always to be desired. For hotels situated in London there are of course many facilities for obtaining frequent supplies, and unless it is the intention to "cellar" a large quantity for the purpose of bringing notoriety to the house, or to receive the financial benefits of wine that has improved with age, there is not a great deal to be said for large wine cellars. Cellars, however, are necessary, whatever quantity be stored, and for wine two apartments are desirable. One should be dry and airy and fitted with ventilators that can be closed in the event of severe cold or frost; the other should be kept warmer for ripening and bringing forward wines that have been stored.

For the cellarage of beer sandy soil or dry chalk are to be recommended. The cellar should be well ventilated and the temperature so regulated that the air should be similar throughout. In severely cold weather the cellar should be artificially warmed, while if it should be too hot in summer, electric fans may be installed. The method commonly used before electric fans made their appearance, was to hang wet sacking from lines suspended in the cellar.

Beer.—Beer has frequently been referred to as the "staple and ancient" drink of this country, and its use for several thousand years has certainly earned for it this dignified title. The beers we are accustomed to in this country are purely natural products, with a basis of malt prepared

from germinated barley. It is the result of sound yeast acting on malt, either with or without refined maize or rice products, with hops and water. The origination of beer is a natural process, and a brewer's taste is practically confined to seeing that there are no disturbing influences in the process and that it develops normally. Apart from being a refreshing and tasty beverage, beer is a natural tonic, and possesses great nutritive properties. It stimulates appetite and promotes digestion, and further counteracts insomnia and neurasthenia. Its alcoholic content is small, and it only becomes harmful when taken in excess.

The enterprise of brewery companies has been of such remarkable growth that home-brewing has practically died out in this country. It is only in country villages where one finds a survival of this once popular manufacture. Bottled beers have proved so successful, both in quality and price, and further they can be transported so easily, that they have become immensely popular. Bass' ales and Guinness' stouts are possibly the leading brews of to-day, and are obtainable everywhere, while many concerns deal in light bottled beers and stouts.

Cider.—Cider is largely a West Country product, although it is found in other districts and other countries. But English cider is distinctly the best made, and is as much a national beverage as beer. It is the juice of apples with water and sugar, occasionally with an addition of quince, and has assumed some importance. Many years ago cider ranked with the familiar rhubarb wine, cowslip wine, parsnip wine, and other wines made from everyday garden fruits and vegetables, but it has outstripped these beverages, now being brewed on scientific principles and on a commercial scale. Thanks to a careful preparation and blending, reliable brands, both in bottle and on draught, can be obtained. It is a mistake to assume that ordinary cider is a temperance drink; it usually contains more alcohol than light beers and wines. There are, however, some types which are practically non-fermented and non-alcoholic.

Perry is prepared from pears and deserves more attention than it receives from caterers.

Both cider and perry require careful storage in dry, cool cellars. Both form excellent bases for summer cups.

Mineral Waters.—As a general rule fancy temperance beverages should be bought from the manufacturers, but in all fairly large concerns there is a distinct saving in preparing soda-water, lemonade and ginger beer. Small and medium-sized aerating plants are now made in very compact form at quite moderate prices. They are not difficult to manipulate. Usually with a little training the cellarman, with two or three boys and girls, can keep up a supply of from one hundred to three hundred dozen a week, working part time. Of course in many establishments natural mineral waters and certain well-advertised brands will have to be kept. But the profit on minerals is large, so their manufacture where possible is advisable. Frequently, too, a modest wholesale trade may be built up by supplying small restaurants, confectioners' and similar shops.

The materials generally required are acetic acid, fruit essences, ginger or tincture of ginger, sugar or saccharin, carbonic acid gas (which can be obtained in cylinders in liquid form), and colouring matters.

Great care must be taken to use only pure water.

The so-called "soda-water" commonly taken with spirits, milk, etc., is too often merely aerated or "carbonated" water, made sparkling and slightly acid by being impregnated with carbonic acid gas, and must be described as such, as a wrong description renders the caterer liable to prosecution. Real soda-water contains besides the gas five grains of bicarbonate of soda to every ten ounces of water, so the term conveys a definite meaning which permits of no substitute.

Mineral waters, whether aerated or not, should be stored in a cool place. Great care should be observed in handling them, as accidents arising in bar or restaurant from bursting bottles or flying corks may give rise to actions for damage.

Prices and Profits

The prices ruling for wines depend as a rule entirely upon the class of establishment in which they are served, in consequence of which at the high-class hotels cheap wines are not on sale. Champagne enjoys a fixed price, according to quality, for purchasing, but in other wines prices fluctuate. On the popular wines the profit made by the hotel is often between thirty-five and fifty per cent., this being due of course to the manner in which they are served, and also the storage. A number of wines improve with storage, and if a hotel proprietor buys a large quantity and stores it for several years, his profit cannot be considered excessive, seeing that his outlay has been "locked up" as it were during the years the wines have been improving. It would be difficult to venture a suggestion in regard to the price to be charged; this *must* depend upon the class of establishment. Take for instance the older hotels in London. A guest orders a whisky and soda, and he is charged 10d. for it, while in addition he is expected to tip the waiter. In the modern hotel of the "non-tip" variety it is possible to obtain a whisky and soda for 6d.

Judging from the success achieved in certain of the popular catering resorts, it would seem to be a mistake to price the wine list too high, as this has a decided tendency to restrict demand. Of course people who want rare old vintage wines do not mind paying more or less fancy prices for them. But good sound wines of ordinary quality can be and ought to be sold at rates at least twenty-five per cent. lower than those usually charged in hotels and restaurants.

CHAPTER VI

CUPS AND AMERICAN DRINKS

Summer Drinks

Lemonade.—The best of all fresh lemonade is made by adding water and castor sugar to the strained juice of the freshly cut fruit.

Lemonade for General Purposes.—Place one pound of loaf sugar and the very thinly peeled rinds of ten lemons in a quart of water and boil. Remove from the fire and when cold add the juice of the lemons together with two quarts of cold water, strain into a jug, and keep on ice until required. Thin slices of lemon are often added before serving.

Lemon Squash.—Rub one pound of loaf sugar on the rind of twelve large juicy lemons, and place in a pan with the strained juice and a pint and a half of water. Stir over the fire until the sugar is dissolved, then whisk the crushed shell and beaten white of an egg into the syrup, bring to boiling point and simmer gently for ten minutes. Strain through a jelly-bag, add half-ounce of citric acid, and store in tightly corked bottles. When required dilute with iced soda-water.

Barley Water.—Wash four ounces of pearl barley ; place in a saucepan with a quart of cold water ; bring to the boil slowly, and continue gently for five minutes. Strain the water off, then add one and a half quarts of cold water ; again bring to boiling point, then simmer for thirty minutes. Sweeten to taste, add a little lemon juice, and serve hot or cold.

Iced Coffee.—To every quart of strong coffee infusion, add a wine-glassful of maraschino or brandy, and three ounces of castor sugar. Place the jug in ice for three hours, and serve whipped or iced cream with the coffee.

Iced Consommé.—Beef-tea carefully made and deprived of all floating fat can be iced, making an excellent drink for serving round after a ball or at the breaking up of a party. Some people also like this as an ordinary beverage. Beef-tea made from meat extract is more difficult to deal with. After diluting in hot water, it should be strained and then iced.

Fruit Drinks.—Raspberry vinegar and fruit syrups are much appreciated as the foundation for iced drinks.

To make raspberry vinegar, for every quart of vinegar take two quarts of scarlet raspberries, fully ripe. Place in a pan and steep in the vinegar for twenty-four hours. Strain through a sieve and pour the liquor over a fresh two quarts of raspberries and allow to stand for another twenty-four hours. Strain as before into a preserving-pan, adding $1\frac{1}{2}$ pound of sugar to every pint of juice, and simmer slowly, stirring well, for fifteen minutes. Skim and bottle.

Cranberry vinegar is also good. Steep two pounds of ripe cranberries in a quart of vinegar for ten days. Pass through a sieve and add $1\frac{1}{2}$ pound of sugar to every pint of juice. Place in a pan over the fire and bring to the boil very slowly. Skim and bottle.

Raspberries, strawberries, red and black currants, and blackberries may be steeped in water for twenty-four hours (about two quarts of fruit to one of water). Pass through a sieve, place in a preserving-pan and add one pound of sugar to every pint of juice. Bring slowly to the boil. Skim and bottle.

The vinegars and syrups may be diluted with iced water or with one of the plain aerated waters. If the white of an egg is beaten to a froth and then beaten up with the syrup before the addition of the aerated water, a foaming beverage is produced, usually much appreciated.

Cups

Badminton Cup.—Embed a large jug in ice, and place in it a bottle of burgundy, one ounce of castor sugar, the thinly pared rind of one orange and the strained juice of two, a sprig of borage, and a wineglassful of sherry or curaçao. Let it stand for two hours, then add two bottles of iced soda-water, and serve.

Chablis Cup.—Surround a jug with cracked ice, and put into it a quart of chablis, one and a half gills of sherry and a sprig of borage. Rub ten lumps of sugar on the rind of a large lemon, then pound them and stir into the liquid. Allow it to stand for one hour, then add two bottles of well-iced seltzer water, and serve.

Champagne Cup (No. 1).—Pour a bottle of iced champagne into a large jug, add a sprig of borage, a wineglassful of brandy, a tablespoonful of maraschino, and two bottles of iced soda-water.

Champagne Cup (No. 2).—Pour a bottle of iced champagne into a large jug, add two or three sprigs of verbena, three slices of cucumber, one ounce castor sugar, a liqueur-glassful of curaçao, and two bottles of iced soda-water.

Cider Cup (No. 1).—Surround a large jug with cracked ice, and pour into it a quart of cider, a glass of brandy, a pint of lemonade (fresh or bottled), six lumps of sugar, a sprig of borage and one of balm. Let it stand for half an hour, then add a bottle of iced soda-water.

Cider Cup (No. 2).—Pour a quart of iced cider into a large jug, add a sprig of mint, six lumps of sugar previously rubbed on to the rind of a lemon and then pounded, a wineglassful of sherry and one of curaçao, and lastly two bottles of iced soda-water.

Claret Cup.—Surround a bowl with cracked ice, and pour into it the strained juice of two lemons, a gill of brandy, and two bottles of claret. Rub two ounces of sugar on to the rind of two lemons, pound it, and stir it into the liquid. Before serving add a bottle of iced champagne and two bottles of iced soda-water.

Strawberry Cup.—Rub some ripe strawberries through a hair sieve. Place a pint of this into a jug, add a liqueur-glassful of maraschino, a

bottle of white wine, six whole strawberries, and sugar to taste; let it stand in ice for an hour before using.

Wine Cup.—Pour a bottle of iced claret into a jug, add a gill of brandy, a wineglassful of maraschino, a thinly-sliced orange, the juice of a lemon, one ounce loaf sugar previously rubbed on the rind of the lemon and then pounded, two slices of cucumber, four sprigs of mint, then add a bottle of iced champagne and two of iced soda-water.

Loving Cup.—Having rubbed the rind of four oranges on loaf sugar, pour over it a pint of brandy, the juice of two lemons, a pint of orange juice and a quart of water. Add more sugar if necessary and ice.

Pineapple Cup.—Take two large ripe fresh pineapples or two tinned-fruit and a pound of castor sugar. Cut the fruit in thin slices and lay in a deep bowl, sprinkling each layer with a liberal allowance of sugar, add the juice and allow to stand for some hours before it is wanted. Then add a pound of crushed ice, about a quarter-pound of fairly large lumps, and a bottle of light white wine. If desired, the same quantity of very thin syrup can be substituted for the wine, thus giving a delicious temperance cup. Another way of preparing this cup is to cut the fruit in cubes and, after steeping as above, passing three-quarters of them through a sieve or a lemon crusher, and adding only the remaining quarter of the cubes to the cup.

Egg Drinks

Egg Nog.—Beat up a tablespoonful of castor sugar with an egg, then add a tablespoonful of boiling water, a wineglass of brandy and another of rum; fill up the tumbler with boiling water. A little nutmeg may be scraped on the top.

Sherry Nog.—Proceed as above, but substitute a wineglass of old sherry for the spirits.

Egg Lemonade.—Half fill a tumbler with shaved ice and pour over it the juice of a lemon and add sugar to taste. Break over this a fresh egg, shake, strain, place in a large tumbler, which fill up with soda-water.

Egg-Hot or Ale Flip.—Beat up together four eggs and a quarter-pound of castor sugar, then, while stirring, add slowly two quarts of old ale (and, if desired, half a pint of old gin). Take another jug and pour the mixture from one to the other until smooth and frothy. A dust of nutmeg is generally added to each tumbler.

Egg Cocktail.—Beat up an egg with a wineglass of gin, add thirty drops of Angostura bitters, strain, ice, and add a dust of nutmeg.

Punches

Ale Punch.—Rub one ounce of lump sugar on the rind of a lemon, and place in a pan with the strained juice; add a pinch of grated nutmeg, powdered cinnamon, three cloves, a pint of water, a quart of old ale, and a gill each of gin, rum, and whisky. Stir over the fire till hot, strain into a punch-bowl, add three or four slices of lemon, and serve.

American Tea Punch.—Having rubbed four ounces of loaf sugar

on the rind of a lemon, place it in a bowl with the strained juice, a quart of tea, and two gills each of rum and brandy. Stir until the sugar is dissolved, then place on ice for three or four hours, and serve in wine-glasses.

English Punch.—Rub five ounces loaf sugar on the rind of three lemons, place it in a saucepan, add four cloves, half-inch of cinnamon, a good pinch of grated nutmeg, a pint of brandy, a pint of rum, the strained juice of the lemons, and a quart of boiling water. Heat gradually without bringing to the boil; then pour into a punch-bowl and serve at once.

Punch à la Française.—Rub a pound and a half of loaf sugar on the rind of four lemons and four oranges, and place it in a pan with the strained juice, two quarts of freshly made tea, two bottles of rum, and two bottles of brandy. Allow it to become hot, then add the strained juice of twelve oranges and a little more sugar if necessary, and serve.

Hot Punch.—Rub six ounces of sugar on the rind of three large lemons, pound it, and place it in a punch-bowl with the strained juice, a pint of old rum, a gill of brandy, a tablespoonful of noyau liqueur, and a pint of boiling water. Stir well, add a little grated nutmeg if liked, and serve at once.

Mint or Summer Punch.—Put eight large sprigs of young mint into a tumbler, add a slice of pineapple, or a strip of orange rind, half fill the tumbler with equal parts of brandy and peach brandy, or sherry and gin, fill up with finely shaved ice, and serve.

Iced Punch.—Rub eight ounces sugar on to the rind of two large oranges and three lemons, pound the sugar, add the pulp of the fruit carefully freed from all the rind, pith, and pips, beat well together, add a quart of boiling water and let it stand until cold, stirring frequently. Strain, add a pint of brandy and the same quantity of rum, ice well, and serve.

Tea Punch.—Put a pint of boiling tea into a hot bowl, add half a gill of lemon syrup, and a tablespoonful each of rum punch and cherry brandy. Serve at once.

Whisky Punch.—Place the thinly pared rind and strained juice of three lemons into a bowl, add seven ounces of castor sugar, one and a half pints of boiling water, and one and a quarter pints of whisky. Stir until the sugar is dissolved, then strain, and serve at once.

Wine Punch.—Place the thinly pared rind of two lemons in a pan, add the strained juice, eight ounces sugar, three gills of rum, a pint of tea, and two bottles of Hock or Sauterne. Stir over the fire till hot but not boiling, strain, and serve.

American Drinks

American Lemonade.—Half fill a large tumbler with shaved ice and pour over it a tablespoonful of castor sugar and the strained juice of a lemon with a wineglassful of water. Add a tablespoonful of strawberry syrup and fill up with soda-water. Add a slice of lemon or orange on the top, and serve with a straw.

Tea Punch.—Place in a bowl one pint of hot, strong, but freshly

brewed tea, add two ounces of castor sugar, the strained juice of a small lemon, and a gill each of good brandy and Jamaica rum. Place in an ice-cave until cold, then serve in small wine glasses.

Brandy Cocktail.—Half fill a large tumbler with shaved ice, add half a gill of brandy, half a gill of curaçao and ginger syrup mixed, and two teaspoonfuls of orange bitters.

Brandy Mint Julep.—Put two small lumps of sugar into a tumbler with a wineglassful of brandy; when dissolved add two sprigs of fresh mint and a little shaved ice. Place a thin slice of pineapple and orange on the top, and serve.

Brandy Punch.—To a gill of water in a large glass add two teaspoonfuls of castor sugar, a tablespoonful of raspberry syrup, the strained juice of half each of a lemon and orange, two thin slices of pineapple and a gill of brandy. Fill up the glass with shaved ice, and serve.

Brandy Shake.—Pour equal parts of maraschino and brandy into a liqueur glass, add a few drops of Angostura bitters, and serve.

Brandy Skin.—Half fill a large tumbler with shaved ice, add a wineglassful of brandy, the juice of a lemon, two teaspoonfuls of icing sugar, and a half-tablespoonful of strawberry syrup. Shake well, strain, and serve.

Ching-Ching.—To a gill of Jamaica rum in a large glass, add a slice of orange, two drops of essence of cloves, one drop of essence of peppermint, and fill up with iced soda-water or shaved ice.

Gin Cocktail.—Half fill a tumbler with shaved ice, add a strip of lemon rind, a wineglassful of unsweetened gin, a tablespoonful of orange bitters, and sugar to taste. Shake well, strain, and serve with the lemon rind on the top.

Gin Mint Julep.—Place a lump of sugar and a teaspoonful of water into a glass, add a large sprig of mint, two slices of pineapple, a wineglassful of gin and some shaved ice, and serve.

Ice-Cream Soda.—Take a large tablespoonful each of strawberry and vanilla ice-cream, place in a tumbler, add a very little shaved ice, and fill up with iced soda-water, holding the bottle or syphon containing the latter high above the glass.

Iced Egg Nog.—Beat the yolks of two eggs with a large teaspoonful of castor sugar till light, then add a tablespoonful of cold water, half a gill of brandy, a gill of sherry, and a half-pint of new milk. Fill up the tumbler with shaved ice, and serve.

Lemon Squash.—Half fill a glass with shaved ice, add the strained juice of a large lemon and castor sugar to taste, fill up with iced soda-water, and serve.

Manhattan.—Mix half a wineglassful each of whisky and vermouth in a glass, add a dash of curaçao and Angostura bitters, and sugar to taste. Fill up with shaved ice, shake, and serve with a thin slice of lemon on the top.

Martini Cocktail.—Half fill a tumbler with shaved ice and pour over it half a wineglassful each of Italian vermouth and unsweetened

gin, a dash of orange bitters, add castor sugar to taste. Serve with a strip of lemon rind on the top.

Mint Julep.—Place six sprigs of fresh mint in a tumbler, add a liqueur-glassful each of brandy and peach brandy, and sugar to taste ; fill up with chipped ice.

Nectar.—Mix together a large teaspoonful of honey, a few drops of lemon juice, a wineglassful of cognac, and half a pint of hot cider. Place the glass in ice till required.

Saratoga.—Half fill a large tumbler with shaved ice, add a wineglassful of brandy, two teaspoonfuls of maraschino, one of Angostura bitters, two of pineapple juice, and castor sugar to taste. Shake well, strain into another tumbler, add half a glass of champagne, and serve with one or two ripe strawberries and a strip of lemon rind on the top.

Sherry Cobbler.—Half fill a tumbler with shaved ice, add two teaspoonfuls of strained orange juice, one of sugar and a gill of sherry, shake well, and serve with a straw.

Silver Dream.—Mix together a wineglassful of unsweetened gin, a teaspoonful of castor sugar, the beaten white of an egg, a dessertspoonful of strained lemon juice, and a tablespoonful of shaved ice. Fill up the tumbler with iced seltzer water.

Silver Fizz.—Beat the white of an egg, add a wineglassful of gin and the strained juice of half a lemon. Pour on to half a tumblerful of shaved ice, shake well, strain into a glass containing a teaspoonful of castor sugar and a good pinch of bicarbonate of soda. Serve at once.

CHAPTER VII

THE CATERER'S FARM

IN the good old coaching days the road was studded with hostelrys that were almost self-provisioning. It is a matter of common knowledge that every country tavern brewed its own ale and largely depended upon the reputation of its brew, but in addition to his dignity as a brewer Mine Host was often a farmer and market gardener. He probably cured his own bacon and could always put before his guests a pot of unsophisticated honey, even in the days when beekeeping was not scientific. He would keep his own flock and herd or could make a mutually advantageous grazing arrangement with the local butcher. As regards rabbits and game he was often in a position to obtain them at first hand, and in the loneliest position he was probably dependent upon the nearest market town only for his groceries, in the meaning our Irish friends give to the word, which embraces the grocer's commodities from pepper to whisky.

The half-farm half-hotel has not entirely disappeared, though, of course, it is not as common an object of the countryside as formerly. The motor-car has encouraged its survival for the reason that a home-made or home-grown product is often novel or at least superior to the ordinary article of the markets. The visible assurance of fresh-laid eggs and home-cured ham is quite sufficient to ensure the reputation of a little wayside inn, and if the children of the party taste English clover-honey for the first time there is a remembrance that amounts to permanent advertisement.

But there are many reasons why an hotel should do as much as possible for itself in the matter of supplies. There are exceptions to the rule, of course; here or there it may be impracticable or at least unnecessary. In a large city with its excellent markets and its distance from rusticity it may be both one and the other. Where, however, it is possible, the only objection there seems to be is the additional work and responsibility thrown upon the shoulders of the hotel proprietor or manager. But, as the Americans insist, a man who can run an hotel is capable of conducting any business to advantage. After all it is only a matter of organisation, and organisation is the strongest suit in the hand of the perfect hotel keeper. It is not necessary that he should be an expert gardener or poultry keeper, but from the nature of his calling he is a good judge of men and results, and this is sufficient.

Let us endeavour to detail the advantages that result to an hotel from the possession of a vegetable garden and orchard; they are so numerous that some are sure to escape us. Naturally the extent of this supply base would be planned to meet the requirements of the caterer, and the question of the advisability of keeping milch kine and rearing

pigs would depend largely on circumstances. The first palpable advantage is the moral effect on the guests of the establishment. It is cumulative ; each individual possession gives a fresh assurance of the superexcellence of freshness and unsophistication. The guest who is taken round a little farm, or is properly impressed with the fact of its existence, is satisfied in his own mind that everything is of the best. He has a comforting assurance of fresh vegetables, new-laid eggs and pure milk, and is gratified with the knowledge that his personal comfort is being well looked after.

The same consideration is of importance to the hotel keeper himself. The man who takes a pride in his garden has a strong and frequently expressed conviction that there are "things one cannot buy." Chaff one of these enthusiastic amateurs on the ultimate cost of his beans and peas, and he will tell you with truth that there is no basis of comparison with market prices. He is probably following the haphazard and unprofessional farming condemned by the northern farmer of planting "here a pea and there a bean," but he gathers them at the fine point of their excellence and they go fresh to the pot ! Some vegetables, the marrow, for instance, fade almost as quickly as the flowers of the field. A vegetable marrow cooked an hour or two after it is cut is a very different vegetable from one bought in the market at an indeterminate time after gathering. As for leguminous vegetables, the market gardener growing them for profit ordinarily allows them to pass their prime before harvesting. He is obliged to prefer size and weight to quality. Moreover, the principle that the sooner they are cooked after gathering the better applies to peas and beans, though perhaps with somewhat less force than to vegetables of the marrow tribe. In the important item of potatoes, again, the market gardener is obliged to choose a heavy cropper without making the first consideration excellence of quality, whereas the hotel keeper should be able to grow the best table potato procurable.

The hotel keeper with a vegetable garden reaps the advantages of the amateur in the excellence and readiness of his products without the disadvantage of undue expense. It should be possible to grow hotel supplies at a less cost than equivalent qualities and quantities bought in the best markets, with the inestimable advantage of freshness thrown in to make weight. He should be able to provide himself largely with bottled fruit, preserves and pickles with the never-failing recommendation of the home-made article. Moreover, he should be able to command a greater variety of vegetables for his table and to satisfy his cooks very thoroughly in the matter of herbs and other culinary simples.

As regards milch kine it is largely a question of pasture ; it is not difficult to secure a working gardener who knows something about them and who can milk. One hotel that we know has a laundry-cum-poultry-cum-milkmaid, which is a most happy combination. The consideration of the rest of the proposed live-stock brings up an important economical advantage.

Of course the question of propinquity must be considered. There is

no reason why the vegetable garden should not abut on the hotel grounds, in fact this arrangement is advantageous from the point of view of the gardening staff. But the styes and pens must be at some distance away ; there are aristocratic prejudices against the porcine race, and the rooster is noisy at unreasonable hours. For the demesne of the poultry there is nothing better than an orchard ; fowls and the trees react favourably on each other. There is shade for the chickens and not only are the fruit trees fertilised, but they are kept freer from the presence of insect life by the presence of the ever-hungry flock. The styes may be at any convenient place at the statutory distance from their attendant's cottage, but it is a mistake not to allow the pigs a run on land where they can do no damage.

Much could be written in favour of keeping poultry as an adjunct to the caterer, not only because the first condition of successful and economic rearing is generally met, i.e. feeding from wastes, but also from the point of view of actually rearing for table. If in the general plan the caterer decides to rear birds for eggs, he must select the strains that are the best layers, such as Leghorns and Wyandottes, but if he intends producing birds for both egg-laying and table use, then his choice will probably lie with Orpingtons, which are perhaps the best all-round selection for both purposes.

With feeding stuff in plenty from the caterer's kitchen and the necessary rough greenstuff—cabbage leaves, together with a little hard grain feed, a plentiful supply of fresh eggs is assured during the active laying season, and then when production falls off, or when the birds have reached their limit of egg production, they should be killed off for table use.

The economic advantage is of course the food supply. Pigs and poultry are profitable only on condition that the cost of their food does not run away with the dividends. A private householder with a small grass run can keep half a dozen fowls and have his eggs and chickens at less than market rates, but as his flock increases the margin of profit vanishes. Now the normal waste of an hotel will feed a herd of pigs and a large flock of poultry with small expense for the necessary additional items of the farmyard menu. This is a point which should decide every country hotel keeper to keep poultry at least. His wastes actually become a source of profit. If he keeps cows the nutriment of the pigs is assured without outlay.

Here, of course, a little accountancy is required at the outset. " I have such and such an amount of edible waste at my disposal per diem, I have this or that extent of grass run, how many fowls can I keep with profit ? " In these days of poultry experts the problem can be solved to the fraction of a chicken !

The whole matter depends upon organisation. Given available land at agricultural rentage, or better still cheaply purchasable, an hotel is in the best possible condition to keep pigs and poultry with profit if the commissariat is properly organised. The kitchen waste must be collected methodically and carted periodically to the farm, and must not

be side-tracked for the benefit of the live stock of others. It should not be difficult to arrange this with a minimum of supervision.

The hotel keeper, *né malin*, will quickly pick up wrinkles in the management of his garden and live stock. The taste for these rural occupations grows rapidly, and he will find the work a profitable recreation.

It is within the sphere of practical politics for the hotel proprietor thus favourably situated as regards land to run a small herd of Alderneys for the supply of his own milk and butter. The ordinary English cow will give a heavier supply of milk than the Alderneys, but the latter yields a much richer milk, and consequently a greater and richer return of cream and butter. There is nothing in the keeping of a small herd of cattle that involves a great amount of extra labour, nor is there a great deal of difficulty in housing them. It is comparatively easy to find an efficient cowman, who could combine with his special duties some assistance about the stableyard or kitchen; and there is little in the way of machinery or plant to be added. A dairy equipped with the necessary churns, pans, and other utensils and a separator for separating the cream from the milk, with a churn for converting the cream into butter, should suffice. Although butter-making is an art, it is one that can, with a few lessons from someone with experience, be easily acquired, and the hotel that can boast of its own milk and butter supply has an attraction for many—particularly such as make a prolonged visit to a neighbourhood—which it otherwise would not possess. Under such conditions there is an undoubted economy in providing the milk and butter supply required for the establishment, for beyond this the separated milk would be sent to the kitchen for puddings, etc., and the surplus could go to the pigs, when it would be greedily devoured and at the same time turned into further profit.

We have been writing mainly from the point of view of the country or suburban hotel keeper. But the argument in favour of a farm for the caterer goes very much farther than that. It is a well-known fact that some of the most successful of London hotels, with restaurant clientele, run farms of their own in one or other of the Home Counties, and they find this an advantage in spite of the problems of distance and carriage. It is also true that at least three of our "universal providers," who are at once provision merchants and in- and out-door caterers, own large farms, whence they draw a no mean share of their supplies of milk, cream, fresh butter, eggs, poultry, pork, and some part of their vegetables and fruits. It is altogether an economical system, leading to suppression of waste, increase of profit, and maintenance of efficiency.

The city hotel keeper who aspires to achieve success in this connection must look for a small holding or a larger farm that is no great distance from a railway, the transit facilities being an important consideration. Of equal importance is the character of the soil and its suitability for the purpose. Sand, gravel, and chalk should be avoided, and although an experienced man may do much on a poor soil it is preferable to select one that is of the medium description and workable under most climatic conditions. Moreover, land that is not already properly drained should

be avoided, and whilst land that is flat or has a southern slope is desirable it must not be low-lying. As the keeping of cows for the production of milk will in most cases be included within the scope of the undertaking, it is desirable that the land should not be situated at too great an altitude. It should as far as possible on the one hand be protected from cold winds, but, on the other, as open as may be to the warmth of the sun. Further, the keeping of stock necessitates the production of a quantity of home-grown food. Consequently a proportion of the land should consist of old pasture or good meadow, as well as arable capable of bearing forage crops and roots. The adequacy of the water supply must also be carefully considered, with especial reference to the requirements of the dairy as well as of the stock in the fields. As the system of cultivation will in most cases be on more or less intensive lines the water supply is also of great importance on that account.

The success of the caterer's farm will, of course, depend very largely upon the skill and experience of the men employed, and more particularly the one to whom the practical management is entrusted. It is obvious that in perhaps the majority of cases the hotel keeper is quite incapable of practical management on his own account—apart from the difficulties of time and distance—and although a study of text books is helpful, the knowledge thus acquired is of small value without direct personal experience. It is therefore necessary to guard against undue interference in matters of detail, which are much better left to the control of the reliable man in charge. Having decided upon the broad lines of stocking and cropping, the business side of affairs is the chief subsequent consideration, subject, of course, to satisfactory assurance that the operations are carried out by capable hands. This is not to say that a general control is not necessary, but that the inexperienced may do more harm than good by interfering in agricultural work; and the manager's capabilities may be judged by results, which the business man is better able to appreciate.

As helping to an understanding of the business side the following notes on the cost of labour—one of the most important factors—should be of value, remembering always that they are necessarily approximate only, and subject to local modifications and fluctuations resulting from a variety of causes. Of labour generally, it may be said that it should be economised as far as possible by the use of improved machinery and implements, by proper supervision, and by careful arrangement of cropping and the several processes of farming. Relative to machinery and implements the cost must be considered with regard to the possible saving of labour, and the supervision and arrangement of labour must—on a large farm—be such as will relieve the manager of constant worry. On a small farm, of course, one may be required to plough, to milk, to feed, and to do the barn work; but in any case the several acts of husbandry must be arranged with a view to the economy of time and labour.

The weekly pay of farm labourers varies according to district, and in some cases the use of a cottage is included and perquisites are taken into account. Somewhere about 18s. a week is a by no means uncommon

wage, although in some districts less is paid and in others special allowances augment the weekly sum at certain seasons. The employment of extra hands for such operations as hoeing and mowing adds considerably to the cost, and should be minimised as far as possible by the method of farming and the judicious use of implements.

APPROXIMATE COST OF LABOUR

| | s. d. | s. d. | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------|--------|--------------------|----------|
| Garden digging, according to the character of the soil | 3 to | 6 | per rod |
| Turning the soil | about | 1 | " " |
| Trenching | 1 6 to | 2 0 | " " |
| Ploughing, one man and two horses (one acre per day) | | 11 0 | , acre |
| Cultivating, two horses (three acres per day) | | 3 0 | " " |
| Harrowing, dragging (eight acres per day), two horses | | 1 4 | " " |
| Chain harrowing (ten acres per day), one horse. | | 6 | " " |
| Rolling, one horse (eight acres per day) | | 8 | " " |
| Carting manure, per mile | | 1 0 | " ton* |
| Spreading " | | 2 0 | " load |
| Sowing artificial manure (about five cwt. per acre) | | 2 6 | " ton |
| Hoeing roots | 5 0 to | 10 0 | " acre |
| " cereals | 5 0 | 6 0 | " " |
| " peas and beans | 4 0 | 5 0 | " " |
| " cabbages | | 5 0 | " " |
| Horse hoeing, one man, one horse (about four acres per day) | | 1 9 | " " |
| Singling, roots | 5 0 | 6 0 | " " |
| Mowing (machine) | 1 0 | 1 6 | " " |
| " (hand) | | 5 0 | " " |
| Cutting (self-binder, 10 acres per day) | | 5 0 | " " |
| Ricks, building | | 1 0 | " " |
| " thatching | 1 0 | per hundred sq.ft. | |
| Stacking | 3 0 to | 4 0 | per acre |
| Threshing (hire of engine, fuel, labour, horses, etc.) | about | 80 0 | per day |
| Threshing, per quarter | " | 2 0 | |
| Root lifting | " | 10 0 | per acre |
| " heaping and covering | " | 7 0 | " " |
| Potato-raising (hand) | | 30 0 | " " |
| Hedge cutting | | 4 | " rod |
| " laying | | 6 | " pole |
| " trimming | | 4 | " chain |
| " cleaning | | 7 | " " |
| " setting | | 1 0 | per pole |
| Faggot making | | 4 0 | " 120 |
| Trussing hay (two tons per day) | | 4 0 | " ton |
| Ditching (cleaning) | | 8 | " chain |

OTHER ESTIMATED COSTS

| | | |
|------------------------------------------|----------------|------|
| Cows, pasturing per week | 3 0 | each |
| " in milk, attendance per week | 1 0 | " |
| " Food per gallon of milk— | | |
| Summer (concentrated food) | $\frac{2}{3}$ | |
| Winter " " | $1\frac{1}{2}$ | |
| " hay and roots | 3 | |
| Horses, pasturing per week | 3 0 | each |
| Sheep " " " | 6 | " |

* One cart-load for one horse.

It is a very common custom to pay the men a small addition to wages on the results of stock-keeping, the following being reasonable allowances, viz:—for each weaned calf, 1s. ; or for a weaned pig, 3d. ; at the birth of a foal, 6d. ; for every fowl “finished” for table, 3d. ; and for every score of eggs collected, 2d.

Relative to the cost of producing crops and stock generally it is to be noted that there is a very considerable lack of agreement, but it is sufficiently evident that if due regard is paid to the economies of farming it is a profitable addition and one that is complementary to catering—whether the consumption of the produce is in the hotel adjoining the farm, or in the more distant centres of population.

Dairy-farming

The following remarks by an experienced dairy-farmer, though not exhaustive, will be found of use as a guidance.

Ayrshire and Alderney cattle are in greatest repute for dairy purposes ; the former on account of the large quantity of milk they yield on comparatively poor feeding, and the latter for the great richness of their milk, though this is small in quantity. The shorthorn breed is highly esteemed for being good milkers. Small breeds of cattle are, as a rule, better milkers in proportion to their weight than the larger kinds. In the summer and autumn months cows are turned out to the grass fields to feed, and if the “bite” is good little more is required ; but proper stall-feeding in winter, or when growing grass is not available, is a matter of serious importance. It should be pointed out that the Danish and Dutch farmers prefer arable farming to pasturage, feeding these milch cows largely on cut green crops and ensilage. In this way they maintain a very heavy head of cattle on a comparatively small area. However, it is necessary to remember that the nature of the food given has a most powerful influence on the richness and flavour of the milk secreted. Cows fed on brewers’ grains give a large yield of thin, watery, insipid milk ; turnip-feeding is at once detected by the strong “nip” it communicates to milk made therefrom. The winter feeding on a first-class Ayrshire dairy-farm consists in giving each cow in the morning six pounds of hay ; at nine o’clock they have steamed food, consisting of cut hay, turnips, bean-meal, and occasionally ground oilcake or linseed, seasoned with salt. At noon each gets four pounds of hay, and at 4 p.m. steamed food as in the morning. In the course of the day each gets thirty pounds of raw turnips. A stable pailful of steamed food is the measure each gets at a time. During the day they have water between the intervals of meals. The largest yield of milk is secured by frequent milking, and, if quantity is aimed at, cows are milked three times a day. When rich milk for butter or cheese is desired, milking twice a day is the rule. The dairy proper, or milk room, should be a cool apartment, so situated as to be, as far as possible, kept at a uniform temperature. Nothing that will communicate any odour should be allowed near the milk, as cream quickly absorbs all flavouring and produces them in the butter made from it. When cream is to be secured for butter-making, shallow milk dishes

are used, but when the manufacture of cheese is the object the separation of milk and cream is avoided. The milk is poured into deep vessels, and in the best dairies it is generally agitated by working a kind of rake through it. As soon as the milk is brought from the byres it should be passed through a fine mesh sieve to free it from short hairs and any impurities. When the milk is to be creamed it is poured into the shallow milk dishes, and under ordinary circumstances the whole of the cream will have risen and be ready to skim off in from eighteen to twenty-four hours ; but in hot weather it is desirable to cream earlier. After the cream has been skimmed off, its butter-making qualities are not injured by its souring, and the frequency of churning is a matter of convenience. All dairy utensils must be kept scrupulously clean, and for this purpose there must be an abundance of hot and cold water. All copper vessels, such as the corrugated milk coolers, must be kept well tinned. If the red metal begins to show through, the utensil should be immediately put out of commission until re-tinned, otherwise the milk will be tainted with a disagreeable coppery or burnt flavour.

Boarding-house Farmstead

It is a common thing for farmers to take in boarders at certain seasons of the year, and they find that it is well worth while, that it pays. There is no reason why this should not be reversed, the experienced boarding-house keeper tacking on to his regular business that of farming. There can be no doubt that chances for success of such a venture are very great, because there is always a large class of people who prefer spending their holidays, be they the lengthy summer ones, the shorter ones at Easter and Christmas, or more or less regular week-ends, amidst rural surroundings and the quiet interests of the farm. To these folk the boarding-house farmstead would possess special attractions, for they would be assured of enjoying the greater amenities of a properly planned and equipped establishment, the comforts of a well-disciplined household staff and of the experienced caterer, with the rural charms they seek.

To command success the boarding-house farmstead should be organised on slightly different lines from the ordinary farm. The house itself should be large, with big lounge hall, comfortable sitting-rooms and bedrooms of various sizes. There should only be ground and first floor for the main building, though another floor of good attics may be added over the wings, one for the servants, and the other for the children, for it will be a wise policy to have night nurseries, with rooms for nurses and trained attendants, in such an establishment. A day nursery or playroom may be provided in a separate building or chalet some distance off, but connected to the main building by a covered paved passage. It is quite a good plan to have one or two cottages close at hand which may be let to families or parties, who would partake of their meals at the farm. In some cases it might be found possible to organise a camp for boys at a distance from the farmhouse. But the camp would have to be well organised and carefully supervised, otherwise crops or live stocks might

be interfered with, and if that occurred the camp would bring more worry than profit.

It will also be necessary to lay out a larger proportion of the land for pleasure purposes than is usual on a farm. This part should include gardens, with lawns for croquet and tennis, bowling-green, shrubbery, and, if possible, a wood. If there is a stretch of heather available for rambling over, so much the better. This can be used for feeding goats on, and will provide, in due season, bracken for litter and fodder. If fishing and golf are to be enjoyed within easy reach, these will prove great recommendations. Where there is plenty of water a little mild fishing can be provided on the farm by enlarging a pond into a shallow lake, enlarging a stream, or building artificial ponds. If the water is shallow, punts may be provided. The water should be kept free from all weeds except bull-rushes. This is especially necessary if one or other of the ponds or a stream is used for bathing purposes.

The constant care of the proprietor must be to eliminate the risks inseparable from rural life as much as possible. With this in view, special care must be taken to pasture cattle in high-fenced closed fields; which applies to pigs, especially sows and boars. Farm-yard machinery, particularly chaff-cutters and root slicers, must be properly fenced and locked up when not in use. All trees should be carefully attended to and dangerous branches lopped off; mulberries and cherries require particular attention in this respect.

Where children are especially catered for, it is a good plan to provide for them a garden where they can conduct their own operations under mild supervision. This should surround the day nursery playroom, and be closed off from other parts by a fairly high hedge.

Farm hands should have accommodation in a separate building, forming a self-contained group with the barns, stables, dairy, laundry, and other necessary offices. If a stream with sufficient pull or swiftness is at hand, it will be well to have a small hydro-electric plant, sufficient to produce current not only for lighting, but for providing power for pumping and other farmstead and household work. In suitable localities this need not entail heavy outlay or much trouble for upkeep. It is in such matters as these that both comfort and profit may be secured.

While comfort should be the note distinguishing the boarding-house farmstead in all its branches, unnecessary luxury should be avoided. Simplicity as regards equipment and management is essential to the main idea of the country retreat. So there should not be an excessive staff, only an adequate number of well-trained women and girls, with a house-boy or two for boot-cleaning, portage, etc. It would be a mistake to attempt elaborate meals. Good food in abundance, nicely cooked, is all that is necessary. But to the simple dishes for the chief meals should be added a variety of dainty breakfast dishes. The early cup of tea with rolls and butter should be served in bedrooms from 6 o'clock to 8, as required, to be followed by a substantial breakfast between 8 and 9. But those who are anxious to be out and about early should be able to

procure a plate of porridge (cooked at night and warmed in a water-jacketed porringer as required), ham, and a cut from a cold roast joint, together with fruit compôte or jam.

Inclusive charges are the best, they give greater satisfaction to guests, look better in advertisements and on tariffs, and entail far less trouble in book-keeping.

When the boarding-house farmstead is a branch of a city or holiday resort catering establishment (the best combination), there will be no trouble with regard to the disposal of surplus produce. Indeed, in that case the primary object of the branch is to supply provisions to the main establishment. But where the farm is run on its own marketing, problems may arise. If the amount of land farmed is fairly extensive, the ideal arrangement is to enter into contracts for supply with town caterers, and in many such cases return contracts may be made for the removal of kitchen swill for feeding the pigs. As a rule, it is scarcely worth bothering with general field crops other than required for the live stock on the farm. The work had better be confined to dairy and poultry-farming, fruit-growing and market-gardening, as far as possible, only choice fruit and vegetables being grown. It is, however, often worth while to have a specially equipped kitchen where surplus fruit can be converted into jam or fruit and vegetables preserved in water for winter use. Where milk contracts are entered into it is better not to attempt making much butter. It is not worth while turning one's attention to the making of cheeses, other than the delicate cream varieties required for immediate consumption. Butter-milk need never be lost. Whatever is left over by the guests will be welcomed by the live stock and will give excellent returns as feeding stuff.

Another profitable way of disposing of surplus produce is to build up a weekly hamper dispatch business. The guests will usually be found good customers as well as valuable unpaid touting agents. As a matter of fact, if the right produce is grown there need be no fear of not finding a remunerative market for it. The real difficulty will be in keeping up a fair average of output, especially in the items of milk, eggs, poultry, and fruit. As regards fruit, it is wise not to have too much of any kind, for though bad seasons come rather too often, it is extremely rare for there to be a failure of all kinds in any one year. So that with mixed orchards and gardens there is every chance that "what you lose on the swings you gain on the roundabouts," which will also be found to apply as regards guests and farm produce. Occasionally it will be possible to make arrangements for farm pupils, not more than two or three, either girls or young men, who will pay rather more than the tariff rate for board and include their work, for whatever it may be worth. If only a few are taken like this, justice can be done to their training; they will be found useful and not to interfere with the legitimate business of the concern. If too many are taken the results will be unsatisfactory to all parties.

One question that should be settled at the earliest stage relates to the division of labour. The best results will be obtained with man and

wife working harmoniously together, the man devoting his time and attention chiefly to outdoor duties and the wife acting as manageress, while supervising the dairy, poultry-farm and storerooms. If a housekeeper is kept she should be of the working housekeeper type, preferably a member of the family. On a farm of over 100 acres, or of 25 acres if cultivated on an intensive or market-gardening system, it will be well to have a bailiff or foreman, who will take charge of active operations and supervise during the master's absence. Farm accounts should be kept as strictly as the books of any other businesses, which will enable an idea to be formed as to what are the most profitable produce. This, however, must not be taken as the only guide, as certain things may have to be grown at a loss for the sake of the catering; but if the loss is heavy, it is best to leave them out and to buy what is required in the open market.

CHAPTER VIII

POULTRY

THE extent to which a caterer may be able to produce his own table poultry must in every case depend upon the individual circumstances, but even under the most favourable conditions it is not generally possible to maintain a sufficient continuity of supply. Whether the requirements be large or small, constant or intermittent, it is necessary to be an expert buyer to ensure the purchase of birds of the desired age and quality. The poultry industry throughout the world has now assumed such large proportions, and our markets absorb such considerable quantities of the products of every poultry-producing country in addition to our own, that buyers must acquire a knowledge of imported as well as English poultry. Birds of every description, both fattened and unfattened, are to be found in our markets and shops, having arrived, some from a few miles distant, but many from far beyond the seas. External supplies were drawn from Russia, France, Austria-Hungary, the United States of America, and in a less degree from various other countries—including China. How far the general sources of supply will be permanently affected by the Great War remains to be seen.

Indications of Age

In chickens and “green” geese (viz. young goslings killed off the grass, chiefly in May and June) the end of the breastbone may be bent, being cartilaginous. In comparatively young birds the breastbone tends to become more brittle than pliant, and in old birds it is set and hard—not giving at all to pressure. Although the condition of the breastbone is a good and fairly reliable test of age, it is one which cannot be applied in all cases, inasmuch as many marketers of table poultry make it a practice to smash the bone during the process of preparation. This enables them to force up the breast meat in order that the birds may present a plumper appearance. It is a method that undoubtedly does improve the look of the bird for the market purpose, but it blunts the carver’s knife and destroys a mark of age.

After the breastbone, the legs and feet (if left on the carcass as is usual until it is dressed for cooking) give more or less satisfactory indications of the age of the bird—although not equally reliable in all cases. The younger the fowl, the softer and smoother the legs and feet will be. The claws are shorter and sharper than in an older bird, and in the case of a cock the spurs are undeveloped or only partially grown in a young fowl; they are also almost straight by comparison with the long and curved spurs of an old cock.

Further clues are afforded the experienced by the size of the comb and the shape of the feathers, but are of little use to the average purchaser—the latter being as a rule entirely, or almost entirely, removed, whilst the appearance of the former in a dead fowl is liable to mislead the inexperienced.

In ducks and geese the windpipe is flexible in young birds, but when the duckling or gosling stage is passed it becomes firm and hard. The legs and feet of turkeys are of a fresher appearance in the young than in the older birds; in the latter they become dull and drab-coloured.

Signs of Quality

It is important to remember that very few of the best quality of fattened fowls find their way to the shop windows of the average poulterer. They are mostly bought up in the early morning markets for the clubs and better-class hotels and restaurants. Such birds may, however, be known by the appearance produced by the special method of shaping for market that is adopted by the fatteners who specialise in this class of table poultry. Properly fattened birds prepared in the usual way present a square and compact appearance, with a particular fullness of the stern. The shape is due to the method of shaping in a press, in which the carcass is placed whilst still warm immediately after plucking and stubbing, viz. the removal of the pin feathers, and allowed to cool under the pressure of heavy weights. The peculiar fullness is the result of a special mode of cramming by means of a machine. Birds showing such signs of skilled work in preparation are as a rule of the finest quality, texture, and tenderness.

Unfattened English fowls of the more ordinary description will hang or lie in a more or less natural manner, by which they may be easily distinguished from imported cold-stored birds. The latter on account of the closeness of the packing usually retain a squeezed appearance, having the legs and wings pressed tight into the sides. Such indications of foreign origin are lost in dressing, under the careful manipulation of the experienced poulterer.

The skin of a good fresh fowl should show clear and free from blotches or any discolorations, and the flesh should give slightly to the touch—free from flabbiness on the one hand or hardness on the other. Birds with pin feathers (the little black stubs that remain after plucking) are to be avoided by the purchaser, as also those with a razor-like breast-bone—these are not indications of tender meat.

It should be noted further that the longer a bird has been killed the more sunken the eyes become, and the harder and drier the feet. It is therefore advisable to select those with soft, moist feet and full eyes.

Finally, it should be remembered that the condition of the back is the best indication of the meatiness of a fowl; it is for this reason that the French display their dead poultry breast downwards—the reverse of the English practice.

“Keeping” Periods

A fowl that is killed, plucked, and in the saucepan before it becomes cold or rigid will (with proper cooking) be tender, but it is only the poultry-keeping caterer who is able in an emergency to serve up a “sudden death” chicken. Generally speaking there is an unavoidable interval between killing and cooking, and it is well to remember that if the carcass has become cold it is advisable not to cook it until about a couple of days have elapsed, otherwise the muscles will not have had sufficient time to relax again, and no cooking will produce a really satisfactory result.

Fowls will keep fresh and sweet for a week or more under ordinary conditions in a temperature of about fifty degrees Fahrenheit. If it is intended to keep them longer, a dry temperature of not more than thirty-four degrees Fahrenheit is necessary. At the latter temperature they may be kept in perfectly good condition for a considerable period, and it is a common practice to thus cold-store them when plentiful, for sale in times of greater scarcity. It is therefore necessary for buyers of poultry in off-seasons, when so many birds are taken out of cold-storage, to remember that it is unwise to keep them too long before cooking, as they are liable to decompose much more quickly than fresh ones.

Drawing and Trussing

In the preparation of the carcass for cooking it is necessary to have at hand a trussing-knife with a sharp point, a ten-inch trussing needle, some fine string, and a clean dry cloth

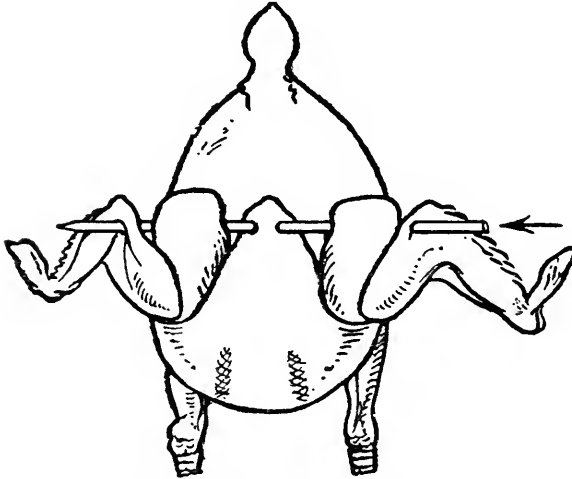
The producer, whether rearer or fattener, in getting the bird ready for market uses string to tie down and shape the carcass. When this is cut away the bird should be singed—a process not usually included in preparation for market. It is preferable to use methylated spirit for singeing, but straw will serve provided care is taken to avoid blackening the skin. After singeing the scorched hair should be rubbed off with the cloth, using this lightly so that the skin is not soiled.

The operation of drawing is performed most readily in the following manner. First, lay the bird on its back and either cut off the toes or the whole of the foot and about half the shank. The final joint of the wings should then be removed, and the loose skin in which the quill feathers are set should be cut off. Next reverse the position of the bird, placing it breast down on the board with the stern nearest the operator. A clean cut is then made through the skin on the back of the neck at a distance of about one and a half to two inches in front of the shoulders, in which direction the skin is cut backwards from the first incision. The neck is then divided at the joint next to the body and removed with the head by a further cutting of the skin in front at about two or three inches from the shoulders.

The crop is then loosened by the insertion of the thumb, working under it from the left to the right shoulders of the bird, after which it is cut out and removed with the windpipe. In order to facilitate the removal

of the intestines it is desirable to first loosen the lungs. The lungs adhere to the ribs and may be reached by the finger through the opening made for the removal of the neck.

The bird should then be stood, as it were, on its shoulders, with the stern upwards.

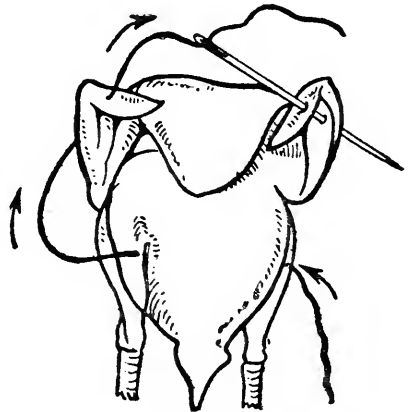


Trussing for Roasting, with Skewer.

When in that position a cut is made between the vent and the tail, across the stern, continuing the cut round the vent; the latter should be held with the left hand, and care must be taken not to sever the attached large intestine. The carcass being then turned to rest on the back, the finger is again used to loosen the gizzard and separate it from the lining of fat. With two fingers the gizzard is then grasped and pulled, gently and steadily, through the

opening caused by the cut around the vent and below the tail. If all the organs have been properly loosened, the entrails will be drawn out entire. When drawn, the dry cloth should be used to wipe out the interior of the carcass. It should not be washed out unless intended for immediate cooking, because it will not keep so well as when a dry wipe out concludes the drawing process. Trussing by the rather clumsy method of skewering has very generally given place to the preferable use of the trussing needle and fine string, which gives a more satisfactory result as well as being simple and quick.

The bird, having been drawn in the way described, is treated as follows: In the first place the opening in the front, caused by the removal of the neck, is closed. This is done by folding over the opening the piece of skin that was left at the back, and covering this



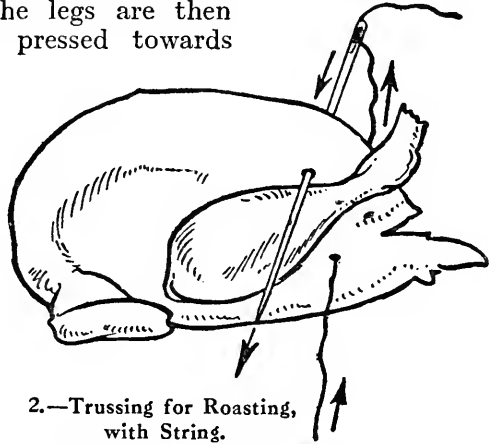
1.—Trussing for Roasting, with String.

by the front flap of skin, which is then turned towards the back. This closure of the front is made secure by doubling the wings back so that they hold the skin in position.

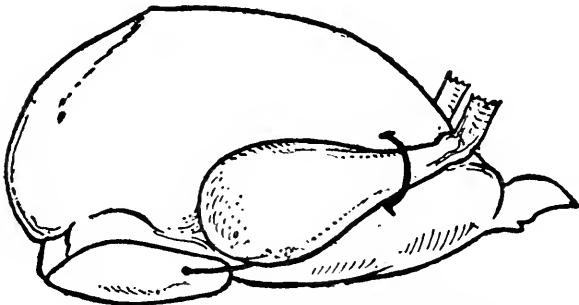
The trussing needle threaded with fine string being ready to hand, the bird is placed on its back, with the forepart towards the left hand. The legs are then grasped by the left hand and pressed towards

the forepart of the carcass, the right hand being used to pierce the body with the needle, at a point behind the legs and in the lower part of the side through the cavity of the body. The needle is drawn out on the opposite side, and the bird is partially turned round. The needle is then passed through the wing at the elbow, and out through the end joint of the wing. The string is carried across the back of the bird and the needle inserted in the end

joint of the other wing, emerging at the side of the elbow. The end of the string being now withdrawn from the needle, it is firmly tied so that the wings are held securely in position.



2.—Trussing for Roasting,
with String.
The course the second string takes.



3.—Trussing for Roasting, with String.
The finished article.

Threaded with a fresh piece of string, the legs of the bird being held down, the needle is again passed through the body at the end of the keel (which is also included and held in position), the legs being below the string.

The body is again turned over and the needle passed through the cavities by the side of the backbone and just

above the tail, thence through the front above the legs—including the keel on the way. The thread is removed from the needle, the ends being pulled tightly—across behind the hocks and round the tail—and finally tied. The hocks and tail coming close together cover the opening made for the withdrawal of the entrails, and the bird is ready for cooking.

PART IV

BREAD, PASTRY, AND CONFECTIONERY

CHAPTER I

THE BAKEHOUSE

IN choosing the position of the bakehouse there are certain leading things which should be kept in view. The first of these is ventilation. Nothing could have been more erroneous than the old idea that a bakehouse can be put up in any hole or corner. Fresh clean air is as indispensable in the bakery as it is in the drawing-room. A bakery should be spacious and free from awkward angles and corners, and it should be above ground. Attention must also be given to its position with regard to lavatories, dustbins, or laboratories or other places where strong-smelling chemicals, soaps, paints, tar, firewood, and disinfectants may be stored. Flour and water, the two great ingredients of bread, are extraordinarily susceptible to odours of all kinds, and the emanations of some of the things named—paints, for example—are poisonous.

Since the introduction of motor-cars there has been a great increase in the amount of dust thrown up and held in suspense over our streets during the whole of the busy part of the day. This dust is often loaded with bacteria. The writer has seen in the laboratory specimens of dust deposited by the air which have been found on cultivation to contain tubercle and other unpleasant perils. The bakery should be as far as possible from a dusty thoroughfare. Though a fairly full supply of fresh air is essential, the ventilators should be so arranged as not to cause draughts or sudden inrushes of air.

Bakehouse Ventilation

Ventilation can be readily and easily obtained by the leading of hot air to chimney or other vent where there is always a good rush of heated air upwards. The constant heat below causes a rush of air in the direction of every fire, and this, owing to the constant need of the fire for oxygen in order to keep itself alight, is carried right up the chimney into the open air above. When, however, there is no fire in a grate the chimney in cold weather becomes an inlet if the air of the room be warmer than the air outside, and may cause a draught. Much has been written about ventilation and it has been made a kind of mystery, but this is all there is in it; and especially if a hot place like a bakehouse is under consideration, or any room having the British open fire, ventilation should be very easy.

In rooms where there are no open fires it is often possible to connect a pipe with a kitchen fireplace or other room in which a fire constantly burns. Where this is not possible fans should be arranged, as they have force to drive foul air, and if there is a good inlet, as someone has said, you need not trouble about the outlet. That is, fresh outside air, being heavy, will always drive before it hot air, which is light. A vent at the top of the room, which would cause a nasty down-draught when the room is heated, becomes a cheap and efficient outlet ventilator when a gas-jet is placed in front of it.

Baking and Bacteria

One of the most important issues arises out of the question of the contamination of flour, and the baking of bread in the midst of unsanitary conditions. Some twenty or more years ago the underground bakeries formed in London no less than half the total number, and a strong agitation was started in which the shocking condition of many of these places was brought to light. Dr. Waldo and Dr. David Walsh, who together led the assault at the time, made some valuable researches into the effect of heat on bacteria.

The results were published in a pamphlet. The horrible bakeries they so vividly described in the book are now happily done away with. The Act of Parliament of 1901 made compulsory almost all the things they demanded in the "ideal bakehouse" they described in their lectures, but the important question as to the effect of heat in sterilising the central portions of a loaf remains in dispute. One writer quoted in the pamphlet referred to says—"The authors have painted a picture of a wretched cellar bakehouse but have done nothing to show that bread produced in these extreme conditions is capable of causing zymotic disease. The dough may be as unhygienic as possible; it may be a very hotbed of bacilli; it may swarm with all the germs known (more or less imperfectly) to medical science, and yet the bread made therefrom would be no whit less wholesome. The loaf has been purified by fire. Germs cannot resist the temperature of the baker's oven. . . ."

Following this criticism Drs. Waldo and Walsh directed a number of experiments in the laboratory and found that in the middle of a quartern loaf during baking the highest temperature was from 163·2 degrees to 186·8 F., and in small loaves from 186·8 F. to 203 degrees F. This highest temperature is attained very gradually, so that the exposure to the highest temperature attained as given above would be only for a short time. Whereas if Wolfhugel and Koch were right in their investigations, to destroy sporeless bacteria one and a half hours' exposure to hot air of 212 degrees F. is required; while spores of fungi require one and a half hours' exposure to hot air at 230 degrees to 239 degrees F., and spores of bacilli needed three hours' exposure to a heat of 252 degrees F. This referred to dry heat, which is not so fatal to organisms as moist heat like that in the centre of a loaf. So that a considerable allowance must here be made. Even after making this deduction the writers of the pamphlet

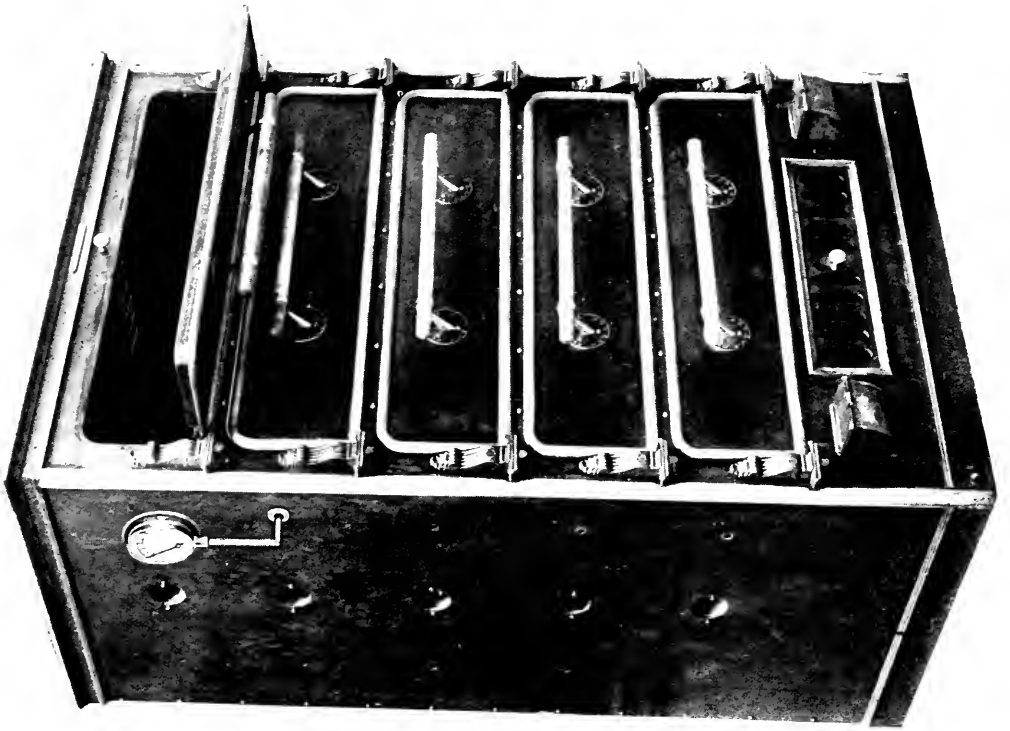
say, "It is obvious that if the temperature found by us in the centre of loaves be correct it will be safe to predict . . . that bacteria and their spores need not necessarily be destroyed by baking inside a loaf."

Briefly, by their examination of the centres of sixty-one freshly baked loaves of bread they found thirteen kinds of bacteria or their spores in a living condition and they state that they "saw no particular reason why the origin of many mysterious septic invasions of the human body may not eventually be traced to the agency of bread." Experiments were made also with the cholera bacillus, and Dr. Walsh wrote: "In view of the fact that cholera is raging in many parts of the world it may be right to say that the comma or cholera bacillus has been cultivated from bread made of dough infected with a pure culture of that organism. If this latter fact be true, it follows that bread made from dough mixed with cholera-poisoned water may contain the living microbes of cholera, which will be handed on to consumers."

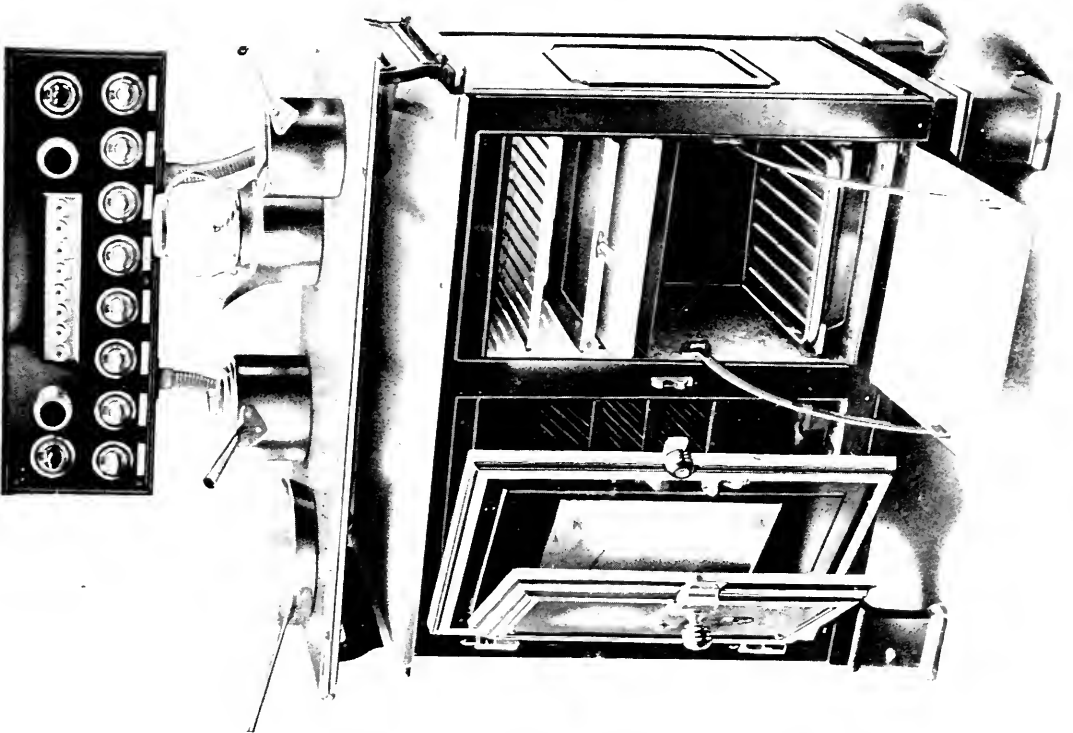
On the whole, however, they "were inclined to think that notwithstanding the comparatively low temperatures reached in the centres of loaves the conditions are such that the greater number of the bacteria present in the unbaked dough are destroyed." On the other hand they pointed out that amongst the thirteen families of bacilli that survived in the sixty loaves upon which their experiments were based, were two types whose death-point in dry heat was about the same as that of the tubercle bacillus, so that they say it may be assumed that as these had survived the baking the tubercle might also escape.

This need not concern us, because there are one or two points of importance to those who bake bread that appear to be made quite clear. 1. That certain bacteria not necessarily harmful may and do survive baking. 2. That the smaller the loaf the greater the temperature attained in its centre during baking; so that what Londoners call a half-quartern loaf, that is, a two-pound loaf, is safer than a four-pound one. 3. That smaller bread and cakes and pastry and biscuits must certainly be completely sterilised. Indeed, this is true of flat thin bread and cakes of all kinds, because they have no centre, as it were, and during the greater part of the time of baking, though the heat may be less than that required for bread, their temperature must be almost that of the oven. 4. The investigations showed that in the case of loaves baked in tins the heat appears to penetrate more effectually, as far as the destruction of organisms is concerned, than in an ordinary loaf. 5. That there is some sense in the ring-shaped bread used by the Italians, which may be seen in the shop-windows in the interesting Italian quarter of Clerkenwell. 6. That the Scottish system of baking at high temperatures, though it may bleach the pleasant yellow-colour of the flour, and even dissipate some of the aroma, possibly gives us the best sterilised loaf. 7. Finally, and this is the chief point I would impress on caterers who wish to start baking their own bread, that the experiments proved that a loaf from a low-class dirty bakery almost invariably contained more living bacteria or their spores than one from a good clean bakery.

BAKERS' ELECTRIC OVEN,
BY PURCELL AND NOBBS.



CARRON ELECTRIC BOARDING-HOUSE RANGE.



CHAPTER II

BREAD MAKING AND BREAD FLOUR

LIKE so many other good things the art of making bread was known to the Egyptians, and it comes to us with something of a shock to know that they kneaded the dough with their feet! It is not so very long, however, since this method was laid aside in our own country, and, indeed, only twenty years ago the conditions under which bread was made here were often very disgusting and unsanitary. In an old-style but presumably modern drawing illustrating Scandinavian bread making in early times, given by Mr. Ashton, those horrible pests of the old bakehouses, the "cockroaches" or "clocks," are depicted climbing up the outside of the oven walls! Accepting the undoubted authenticity of the fact if not of the drawing, we are reminded that even in our troubles we are to-day only suffering a repetition of the things men bore in the days of the Pharaohs. Bread is, however, even older than the Egyptians, for in the remains of lake-dwellings found in Switzerland, dating from the time of the Stone Age, hard-baked bread has been found.

In England an Act was passed as early as 1266 establishing a public assize by which the price of bread was fixed. In 1822 the City of London obtained an Act on its own account, and in 1836 a new Act was passed for the whole kingdom by which bread shall be sold only by weight and must be weighed in the presence of the purchaser. This does not apply to "fancy" bread. In Scotland, Local Acts have been obtained in many places which clear up some of the ambiguities of the Acts of 1822 and 1836. These Acts also state that bread must be—

"Made of flour or meal of wheat, barley, rye, oats, buckwheat, Indian corn, peas, beans, rice or potatoes or any of them, and with any salt, pure water, eggs, milk, barm, leaven, potato or other yeast, and mixed in such proportion as they shall think fit, and with no other ingredients or matter whatsoever."

The penalty for adulteration is a fine of not less than five or more than ten pounds. By an act of 1901 the sanitary supervision of bakehouses was transferred to local authorities. An enormous improvement in their condition has been the result. No bakehouse can now be more than three feet below the level of the footway of the street unless certified by the District Council as suitable for the purpose, and no place on the same level as a bakehouse may be used as a sleeping place. Bakeries in which steam power is used were, by this Act of 1901, placed under the factory inspectors.

Unfermented Bread

In old times bread was made from the bruised or crushed grain mixed with water and then subjected to heat. We, of course, still use this simple process in making scones, pancakes, oatcakes, and bannocks at home, also the Jewish unleavened bread; and many races use the same ancient method with other forms of grain in other countries. The essential difference between this kind of bread and the modern fermented bread is that no chemical change has taken place in it, that is, it has not been started on the road to decomposition, fermentation or putrefaction, call it what you will, to which all foodstuffs are subjected during the process of digestion in the human body. Though the method described is the oldest form of cooking cereals, the more modern form of adding yeast or leaven is yet as old as the time of Moses. It was known to the Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, and many other nations of antiquity.

The action of leaven was certainly a wonderful discovery; leaven is simply a piece of dough, that is, of flour and water, which has been subjected to warmth for about six days. By this time the process of decomposition, or fermentation, has set in, and it was found that if leaven were mixed and kneaded in small quantities with fresh flour it had the effect of at once starting the process of fermentation in the whole mass. The dough is then left to "set" for a time, when it is taken to a kneading trough and again thoroughly kneaded and stretched, more flour, water and salt being added. The action of the yeast or leaven has now turned the gluten, starch and sugar contained in the flour into alcohol and carbonic gas, so that the dough "rises" and is seen to be full of little bubbles of air. The pan of dough is placed in a warm spot for about two hours and is then cut into loaves and placed in the oven either on the hot shelf or in tin pans. When baked it is called in the North "tin" bread and in the South "pan" bread.

The proportion of water to the dough used in baking is large, as may be judged from the fact that good bread when fully baked contains about forty-five per cent. of moisture. One of the most interesting and important facts is that the heat used in baking also acts as a preservative and stays the process of fermentation.

Unfermented Bread and Cakes

Besides the oatcakes, bannocks, scones, and girdle cakes and potato cakes so common in Scotland, there are several kinds of bread still in use which are made without fermentation.

Aerated Bread

This bread, once so popular, and still largely used in London especially, and in some parts of the South of England, is made by a process invented by Dr. Daughlish in which the flour is placed in an enclosed box and mixed with water which has been aerated by carbonic acid gas, instead of with plain water. The mixture is then kneaded and dropped into loaf-shaped

pans and placed in the oven. The effect of the heat is to expand the loaf which is thus charged with carbonic acid gas. The advantages of this system, provided the bread could be made as palatable as fermented bread, would be great, for, as Dr. Daughlish pointed out, the whole of the waste caused by the fermentation process being avoided, more loaves can be made out of each sack of flour. Again, as the whole of the process of baking only takes about half an hour, whereas the baking and preparing of fermented bread occupies about ten hours, there is a great saving of labour, of time, and of fuel. Moreover, the process of kneading by hand is rendered unnecessary, and there is a saving in the whole cost of the yeast. It is also quite impossible for any impurities to get into the bread or for mistakes of judgment in handling to affect it. All the bread lacks to make it popular is palatability. It is also stated that by this process all the cerealins, which is "a powerful agent in promoting the easy and healthy digestion of food," is retained uninjured. This, it has been pointed out by Mr. Jago, is an error, as the action of cerealins in this respect is destroyed by the high temperature to which it is subjected in the process of baking. This is true also of malt, which is similarly introduced into bread, though, as Mr. Jago pointed out, by the great heat in baking it is deprived of its action as a digestive.

Gluten Bread

Sugar and starch, though so valuable as energisers when contained in food, are detrimental to persons suffering from diabetes, and for them wheat flour is deprived of its starch by a washing process. The flour is worked up with water into dough, and after standing for an hour is divided into small pieces and placed in a basin containing water, each piece being separately treated. By this means the starch, having no binding property, escapes in the stream of running water, and the gluten which possesses the binding property in the loaf remains. When the water ceases to be whitened by the starch it will be known that little or none of the starch remains and the gluten is placed in the oven after being cut into small rolls or cakes.

Comparative Nutritive Values of Bread

In respect to nutritive value the difference between the cereals is not great. An average grain of wheat contains of water 14.0, nitrogen (insoluble in alcohol) 4.5, nitrogen soluble 7.2, sugar 2.2, starch 65.8, fat 1.5, cellulose 3.0, minerals 1.8—total 100. Of course there is considerable difference in different kinds of the same grain. In the table given by Bell, wheat contains of fat 1.48 to 1.56, barley 1.03, British oats 5.14, maize 3.58, rye 1.43, Carolina rice 0.19. Of starch, wheat contains 63.71 to 65.86, barley 63.51, oats 49.78, maize 64.66, rye 61.87, rice 77.66. Of cellulose wheat 3.03 to 2.93, barley 7.28, oats 13.53, maize 1.86, rye 3.23, rice traces. Of sugar, wheat 2.57 to 2.24, barley 1.34, oats 2.36, maize 1.94, rye 4.30, rice 0.38. Of albumen (insoluble in alcohol), wheat 10.70 to 7.19, barley 8.18, oats 10.62, maize

9.67, rye 9.78, rice 7.94. Of other nitrogenous matter soluble in alcohol, wheat 4.83 to 4.40, barley 3.28, oats 4.05, maize 4.60, rye 5.09, rice 1.40. Of mineral matter, wheat 1.60 to 1.74, barley 2.32, oats 2.66, maize 1.35, rye 1.85, rice 0.28. Of water, wheat 12.08 to 14.08, barley 13.06, oats 11.86, maize 12.34, rye 12.45, rice 12.15.

Tables given by others differ considerably, but the important facts, and they are of the first importance, remain that in all the analyses wheat is the highest in gluten and in starch, rye is the highest in sugar, though followed closely by hulled oats, which are much the richest of all in the important matters of fat and mineral matter and are given by Hutchison as highest in protein. They are, however, highest in cellulose, which is of no known value as food.

Kinds and Qualities of Wheat

Of course a good deal of the bread we eat is not made from wheat grown in Britain. The finest wheat is that of Hungary, which is essentially a wheat-growing country, of the United States, of Canada, and of Russia. The flours of wheat grown in Great Britain, Germany, and France are nearly always fortified by mixture with some of the "strong" flours of the countries just mentioned. Of all these classes Hungarian comes first and fetches the highest price. The delightful nutty flavoured, excellently baked bread we call "household" or "cottage" in Southern England, and "oven bottom" bread in the North, has a large percentage of gluten in it and is mostly made from foreign flours, which are richer in this ingredient than those of our own country. English wheat, though it is a good "weak" wheat, is valued for its flavour or "sweetness," and has always been regarded as of value as a flavourer. Some "strong" wheats, like those of the United States and Canada, are not so full or sweet, and English, French, or German flour is generally mixed in the trough with the "strong" flours to improve the flavour. Large quantities of wheat are grown in our Australian Colonies, and this being a descendant of English wheat has also its fine flavour, though it is also "stronger" than English flour. Hungarian flour stands first of all, being both "strong" in gluten and of rich flavour and great nutritive properties. In the highly useful tables of the methods of making bread in various parts of Britain and of Europe which is given by Mr. Owen Simmons in his Bread Book it will be seen how important a part it plays in the bakehouses in our own country.

Leaven and Yeast

Leaven, of which we read in the Bible and other ancient books, is a piece of dough which for about six or seven days has been subjected to warmth. By that time a process of fermentation is set up. This is really a decay or putrefaction caused by living organisms very similar to the forms that show themselves in milk and many other substances. By the addition of a piece of leaven which is in a state of ferment to the new fresh dough it was found that fermentation was set up in

the new dough and greater lightness, better taste, and greater digestibility were given to the bread.

Yeast was a later discovery by which the large quantities of the ferment required for great populations can be readily produced. It has an important influence not only upon the digestibility of bread, but also upon its nutritive value.

A Dutchman named Leuwenhoek as long since as the year 1680 discovered that yeast was a mass of small living cells, and Latour found that these cells were capable of reproduction. Pasteur in 1857 confirmed the view that in alcoholic fermentation was "organisation, development, multiplication, and consecutive life." The introduction of these cells or globules in the form of yeast into flour and other fermentable materials which would not ferment if left alone, sets up the work of fermentation or decomposition. A small quantity of yeast globules will cause fermentation in very much larger quantities of fermentable material. The globules themselves also actually increase during the fermenting process. The process of decay is one of breaking up and the throwing off of gases. The action of the yeast is to decompose and break up the flour and cause it to throw out carbonic acid gas and alcohol. These gases are kept in the dough for a time by the glutinous character of flour, and the bread "rises" owing to the gases with which it is now filled.

The yeasts which are now used in baking in Britain, instead of the piece of fermented dough or leaven, are either vinegar yeast, brewers' or distillers' yeast. All of these give their stamp of flavour to the bread, as do also patent yeasts. Yeast is made from grain and malt extracted from barley or maize, rye or rice. The barley is steeped in cold water at a temperature of about 52° F. for fifty-four to seventy-two hours. The grain is allowed to drain and is then placed in large heaps so that warmth will be maintained in order to promote fermentation. After having been moved about so that exposure to the air may be complete, the grain germinates, the roots develop, and many other changes take place by which the barley corn is converted into malt. By the next operation it is dried in a kiln. The malt by this drying recovers and develops its fine aroma and is ready for use after it has been allowed to lie for a few weeks in order to mature. From it malt flour is made. The extract of malt which is used for stimulating yeast when fermenting and for making patent yeasts or barm is made by mashing.

The compressed yeast we use is mostly that produced in distilleries and breweries, chiefly from barley, maize, rice, and rye, being part of the waste matter left after the production of spirits and beers. Raw grain is mashed for three hours at a temperature of 130° rising to 150° F. About twenty per cent. of malt is added.

The mash is then cooled by refrigeration and fermentation is set up by the addition of yeast. In distilleries that make a business of supplying yeast to the bakery trade the mash or wort, as the liquid ferment is called, must be thoroughly exposed to the air in order to promote the growth of yeast. When a satisfactory condition is reached the yeast

is skimmed off the surface and prepared for sale to the baker. The best yeasts for baking are the Scotch, French, and Dutch.

Brewers' Yeast was once largely used, but is now much less so than distillers' yeast on account of its unreliability.

This arises from the fact that, while great attention has been given by distillers to the preparation of yeast, brewers still regard it as a mere by-product, their chief object being the brewing of beer. Yeast must again have plenty of malt, and the amount of malt used by brewers is now much less than formerly, malt substitutes having largely taken its place. Brewers' yeast also requires more careful watching than that supplied by distillers.

Barm.—Barms are in general use among Scottish bakers. The two chief kinds are Parisian barm and Virgin barm. All are made of flour. Parisian barm is described briefly by Mr. Kirkland as consisting of "scalded flour mixed with a strong decoction of malt." Into this, however, to start fermentation, is put about a gallon and a half of old barm or of Virgin barm. Fermentation lasts for sixteen to twenty-four hours, when the barm is cooled. The late Mr. Thoms of Alyth says: "Parisian barm was introduced into Scotland from Paris by an Edinburgh baker in 1846." It is, as he says, "essentially a leavening ferment, a scientific modification of the systems of ancient Egypt and present France." It is used in all the Scottish machine bread factories and also in Ireland.

Virgin Barm is made of the same materials, save that no old previously prepared barm is put into it to start fermentation, that is, it is self-fermented. The Scottish flour barsms are slightly acid in flavour owing to the presence of lactic acid, whose presence is held to be beneficial to the bread.

Baking Powders

The other and modern method of setting up fermentation in dough is by the addition of chemicals which give the carbon dioxide necessary to aerate dough. Of these bicarbonate of soda is the best known. Crystal and normal carbonates are also used, also cream of tartar, potassium acid citrate, superphosphate of lime, etc.

Choosing the Flour

The best test for flour is the baking test, and whenever large quantities are purchased a sample loaf should be made and baked. There are some general rules which are useful as guides, though often perhaps not infallible ones, in the selection of flour. Colour is important: it should be a bright cream, a brownish-white, a yellow-red, to a cream; it should not have a dull grey hue, or as it were a colourless white like plaster of paris. There are certain classes of flour, notably from South America, which though white in appearance come out grey when baked, and it is well for those intending to conduct large establishments to get a little practice in comparing side by side several classes of flour. A "strong" flour when pressed in the hand should retain its shape when the hand is opened.

Flour needs knowing, and should have very careful attention. The whitest flour, if it be pure, has the largest proportion of starch; creaminess betokens gluten, which is a more valuable constituent than starch and the one the writer would not hesitate to choose. Though white is the colour most fashionable, a creamy loaf, assuming of course that it is unadulterated, is the more valuable in the things that matter—flavour and nutritive value. The red and brown flours may be nutritious, though they are not so fashionable, as they contain, owing to more imperfect milling, a greater proportion of bran and even of husk. The bran is, of course, of great nutritious value; owing to its being more or less fibrous in character it is less digestible than the actual wheat berry which it encloses.

CHAPTER III

DOUGH-MAKING METHODS AND SPECIAL BREADS

Off-hand Doughs

THE following are the chief dough-making methods now in use in European countries.

The one which is at present growing most in popularity is what is called the off-hand process. In this the dough is made, as the name suggests, straight away without any introductory stages in which the ferment and sponge are prepared. About one and a quarter pounds to two pounds of yeast is used to the sack of 280 pounds of flour for tin bread. Salt is added, about three pounds to the sack. A slack dough is required for tin bread, so that some seventy quarts of water must be added. Fermentation takes place at about 76-80° F.; about ten hours should be allowed for this. In the case of cottage bread a stiff dough is used with some ten quarts less water; it takes about six hours for fermentation. The yield, owing to the large quantity of yeast employed, is large, about 104 loaves per sack of flour. The saving of labour by this process is considerable, and the bread is produced much more quickly, several operations being unnecessary. The disadvantages of the system are the poor appearance of the bread, its variability in quality and flavour, it being sweet at its best, but at other times tasteless or sour.

Ferment and Dough

In this method a saccharine ferment is made of boiled potatoes mashed with water or with malt, malt extracts, scalded flour or yeast. About six hours are allowed for fermentation. The dough, which contains a much lower percentage of "strong" flour, is allowed about fifty-six quarts of water to the sack and about two and a half to three pounds of salt. The heat required is higher than that used in the off-hand method, say 80-84° F. The amount of strong flour being so much reduced, the number of loaves produced per sack is also lower. Less yeast is used. The bread is pleasant in flavour if well baked, but has not the keeping qualities of bread produced by the other methods. The yield per sack is only about ninety loaves. The appearance of the loaves is good. Its non-keeping qualities should be borne in mind, and it should be eaten fresh. Twelve hours after baking it may be said to be on the down-grade.

Sponge and Dough System

This is the process most adaptable and most generally used in England for all kinds of bread. For the sponge, "strong" flours, generally blended, are used. Strong flours are those which are rich in gluten and therefore

give a stiff upstanding dough. The sponge, which is made with about a quarter to one-half of the amount of flour intended for the entire baking, is made with a large quantity of water, that is, it is made "slack." Distillers' yeast is generally added and a small quantity of salt. Five to ten hours are then allowed for fermentation, after which the remainder of the flour it is intended to use for the baking is added, only this time the flour used is English, French, or other "weak" flour not so rich in gluten. The whole is mixed up together with more salt and water until it reaches the dough stage. About two hours later it is divided into loaves or put into tins and placed in the oven. This system yields from ninety-three to ninety-six loaves per sack without being forced by too great a proportion of strong flours. The flavour is generally excellent as also is the appearance of the bread. A point to guard against in this type of bread is over-dryness. The sponge and dough loaf is one of the very best for keeping qualities.

Flour, Barm, and Sponge

This is also known as the Scottish system. The barm used differs from that of England in being a mixture of hop yeast and malt, with a slow ferment of scalded flour. The bread, as has already been said, is considered to be slightly acid by those who are not used to it, and the malt flavour is also unfamiliar to southerners. In comparison, the flavour of the Scottish "brick" loaf, it seems to the writer, would be less than that of the oven-shelf loaf were it not that the ingredients used with the flour make up a flavour fully as strong or stronger, though perhaps less pleasant, than that obtained in the oven-bottomed household bread. In the latter stage the difference between this method and the English method is that though the sponge is made of strong flours as in England, stronger flours are used in the dough. The ferment is generally used four or five days after it is prepared. Flours of the best quality are generally used, and the fact that the bread is largely made by steam in huge factories may be in general a guarantee of the high quality of the ingredients. For the sponge strong Russian or other strong flours are most popular, and in the dough, home-milled American flours softer than used in the sponge but stronger than used for English doughs. The dough is subjected to a thorough kneading. A large quantity of salt, about six pounds, is used.

The yield is large, about one hundred loaves to the sack, and the quality of the bread is good, and, as is important in factory bread, its keeping qualities are excellent. The crust is good and dark in colour and the inside of the loaf very white, which is due, not to the whiteness of the flour but to the high temperature at which the bread is baked.

Ferment, Sponge, and Dough

In this method the sponge and dough and the ferment and dough processes are combined, the yeast being put into the ferment, and not into the sponge as described in dealing with the sponge and dough system.

In a communication to Mr. Jago, Mr. Callard gives as his opinion that during the past twenty years or so there has been an improvement in the quality and prices of compressed yeast and that they are less susceptible to atmospheric changes and suffer less in transit. They also mature quicker in the dough and so enable bakers largely to do away with ferments and sponges and use the straight dough system (off-hand) above described. This system, he says, "with one and a quarter pounds to one and a half pounds of yeast, taking about five hours to the oven," is becoming general.

Flavour in Bread

The bread we eat had for many years been almost exclusively made from wheat. Rye, which forms the material of the bread of so great a portion of Europe, including Germany, Belgium, Austria, and the Balkans, has fallen into disuse in Great Britain. This is surely unwise and unfortunate, because it reduces the varieties of our bread; it could also be used for blending. Mr. Kirkland of Irvine very well puts it: "I am far from thinking that we have been fair to the other cereals in our neglect of rye, barley, and Indian corn, or that our bread mixture could not be improved." The question is whether as caterers we should not widen the scope of our work to find the latest possibilities of cereals other than wheat. We think the Continental nations have shown more worldly wisdom than ourselves in refusing to be shut up to wheat in the manufacture of their breadstuffs. There is no question but that the rye bread, which is a judicious mixing of flour of rye with syrup, has a flavour distinctly relishing, and price for price as food gives more energy than the same value in wheat-flour bread. The wisdom of cereal mixture has been fully demonstrated during our war-time experiences.

With regard to the use of articles of lower nutritive value like potatoes, maize, and rice in our bread, Mr. Kirkland speaks plainly. He says: "I decidedly object to have my flour mixed with farina, maize, or rice flour." Mr. Kirkland adds on this subject of "enriching" bread: "I am firm in the belief that the bread of the future will be in part a milk bread." He explains further on this point: "Suppose I add" (to the large amount of starch and sugar contained in wheat-flour) "one pound of condensed milk to eight pounds of water with flour added and, say, four ounces of lard. In the condensed (whole) milk I have a liquid that is rich in protein, while for its bulk it has sixty per cent. of fat, milk, sugar and added cane sugar. In the result the proteins will be ample and the energy-giving materials will be equal to any demand that can be made on the human frame."

Flavour also depends very largely on the baking, and in this respect British-made bread has a good reputation. That it does not wholly depend upon the quality of the flour or the country and soil upon which the grain is grown, has been proved by the fact that the same flour makes bread largely different in flavour in the hands of different bakers, who have varying processes and traditions. The crust in all cases tends to keep in the flavour and the aroma of the flour, and especially when rapidly

formed may account in some measure for the superior sweetness of the "oven-bottom" or cottage loaf, which has crust all round, as against the "tin" or "pan" loaf, which is directly exposed to the heat only on one side.

In baking competitions the sweetness and crispness of the crust is considered an important point by the judges. It is also held that a "slack," that is, a watery dough, makes a better loaf in point of flavour than a stiff dough, on the ground that the watery dough allows the yeast room for fuller action and development, both as a flavourer itself and in bringing forth the flavour in the flour. Mr. Simmons points out that to test the flavour of dough it is necessary for it to be baked, but a great deal can be learnt by heating it. The aroma of flour is very volatile and it evaporates much more quickly when heated. He also reminds us that as an alternative test, a series of different flours should be placed in cups or glasses and hot water poured on them. They should then be stirred and tested by the scent. Any staleness or other characteristic can be readily detected.

Much can be learned of the quality of a loaf by the eye without tasting as well as by the nostril. Tasting is, however, the final and most important of all tests. In this it is necessary to eat several pieces in order to rid the palate of the taste of any previous food or odour. Good bread should break up readily in the mouth, should not be sticky and cling to the palate or teeth, should give pleasure in eating and swallowing and should leave a pleasant after-taste. There should, of course, be no hard particles in it or pieces of husk. The flavour of bread, he points out, and it should be borne well in mind, depends also upon the process of fermentation in baking, in which judgment and experience are required, on the freshness of the flour and the kind and quality of the wheat from which the flour was made. Other important considerations are its value, from the nutritive and chemical point of view, as a supporter of life, its milling, freedom from adulteration after milling, and the care taken in its storage both on board ship and in the warehouse. Flour, it should be remembered, is very readily affected by scent from other kinds of merchandise and may be easily ruined by being placed near them. The London County Council have made praiseworthy efforts to guard against this evil in the case of milk, which is not allowed, under their recent restrictions, to be sold in a shop in which paraffin or firewood is sold. Our experience points to the necessity for a similar restriction with regard to the sale of bread. Water is also very susceptible and readily takes the scent of surroundings, and water is a very important constituent of bread. It should always be freshly drawn, after a certain quantity of the water has been run off to be used for cleaning, flushing, or other purposes than cooking. The fact mentioned, that in the old stone mills the heating of the germ by friction during the milling process undoubtedly produced an aroma that affected the whole of the flour, is a striking illustration of the sensitiveness of flour to scents and savours. Of course it should be remembered that baking is in itself a cleansing process and, as was pointed out in our

remarks on aerated bread, so in ordinary baking flour, if it is affected only slightly by the odour of any of its surroundings, assuming that those surroundings are perfectly sanitary, it may be used. It is often found that only the surface of the flour is contaminated, as might be expected from its dense and close-lying particles, the flour under the surface remaining perfectly good. So that though wheat-flour is sensitive it is on the whole well adapted to stand vicissitudes.

Vienna Bread

This bread is made of patent flour and is best known in the form of the familiar breakfast roll. For it milk is used without ferment. Mr. Jago quotes the following recipe from *The Miller*:—Eight pounds of flour, three quarts of milk and water in equal proportions, three and a half ounces of compound yeast, one ounce of salt. The warm water is mixed first with the milk so as to give a temperature of from 80-85° F. Sufficient flour is added to make a weak sponge not much thicker than batter. The yeast is crumbled, mixed well in, and the sponge allowed to stand for about fifty-five minutes. The rest of the flour is then added slowly together with the salt, and the dough is thoroughly kneaded and set to ferment for two and a half hours. All Hungarian flour may be used throughout, or the finest Spring American patent flour may be substituted in the sponge. The bread is glazed by the introduction of a jet of steam into the oven while baking.

Hovis Bread

The wheat grain or seed of the wheat plant, when divested of all its protective coats or husks, consists of two parts, of which the endosperm or starchy part is much the larger. The remaining part, called the "germ," contains the vital principle, the starch being intended for its nourishment when actually growing. No doubt is entertained of the use of the starchy matter as human food, but a good deal of discussion has taken place on the value of the germ. For it has been found that retention of the germ has an injurious effect upon the flour. Owing to its possessing a high percentage of fat it has a tendency to discolour the flour and to turn it rancid, and also to promote a chemical change in the flour by its diastatic action. Owing to these disadvantages the germ had come to be regarded as part of the offal though its high nutritive value was admitted. By a series of experiments Mr. R. Smith found that by taking the germ after its separation from the endosperm and partially cooking it by superheated steam it was deprived of its active diastatic properties and at the same time a flavour akin to that of malt was developed by the heat.

In making germ or Hovis bread one part of the germ flour thus prepared is mixed with three parts of the best flour and makes what is known as Hovis flour. The result is a bread which is stated to possess twice the nutritive value of ordinary wheat flour. It is also stated to be very digestible. Even after taking these claims with a grain of salt, more particularly the statement as to its being more digestible than wheat-flour

bread, we have probably the most valuable and most digestible brown bread now on the market. It is close in texture, but no brown bread can escape some share of the fibrous husk, and therefore it cannot be as digestible as the best well-baked white flour bread.

Brown Bread

Hovis bread, though brown, is not a brown bread in the older accepted sense. Brown bread is bread made from the whole wheat-berry including the outer coverings, which contain a larger percentage of nitrogen than the two central portions, the endosperm and the germ, which have already been sufficiently described. Though the whole wheat contains more nitrogen, it does not follow that all the forms of nitrogen it contains find their way into the blood of those who eat them. It has been proved that the nitrogen contained in the bran and the husk is in a form in which it is impossible for the digestive organs to deal with it. Great part of it is, in fact, expelled in an undigested condition, carrying with it other forms of food which by association with the irritating particles of the bran share the same fate in being imperfectly digested.

Rye Bread

Rye bread was formerly almost universally used in England and Scotland, and maintained its place among the farming and peasant classes until some sixty years since. The use of wheat came gradually, and for long the patches on which it was grown were used for the squire and the laird. Our literature is far more full of references to rye than to wheat in consequence. In northern Europe rye bread is still generally used, sandy soils being especially suited to it. The reason why wheat superseded rye in countries like our own where either grain will grow, is that wheat of all grain contains most gluten. Rye comes next, but it in particular, and the other cereals less so, on fermentation becomes dark and has a tendency to turn sour owing to the cooking process bringing out a large quantity of dextrine. It is certainly unfortunate that wheat should have so completely supplanted rye as a bread flour amongst us. Rye is, of course, highly nutritious and with the mixture used on the Continent is very palatable.

Scotch Bread

The Scots have a good reputation as bakers of bread and confectionery and have been inventors of many processes connected with baking. The household bread baked on the oven-bottom is, however, in the writer's view the best bread in Scotland, and much superior in fullness of natural flavour to the "brick" bread which, made in enormous quantities in the towns, is sent out all over Scotland, even to the remote country districts. It is whiter than English "tin" or "pan" bread, some of the bleaching being done in the oven, Scottish bakers using greater heat than is customary in England. The brick loaf keeps admirably, being excellently "fired,"

to use the Scottish term. It is generally more salty than English tin in flavour, owing to the Scots having, during their five centuries of friendship with France, adopted or experimented with many French cooking customs, including the wide use of Parisian barm, which has a flavour of lactic acid. The point is that though its flavour may be as strong as that of the "household" type of bread baked on the oven bottom, it is a flavour derived largely from other ingredients than the flour and is not the natural flavour.

It is held that a high temperature, while quickly bringing forth the aroma which gives flavour to the flour, may, on the other hand, rapidly volatilise it and so allow the dissipation of this valuable element. Certain it seems to the writer that the "brick" class of Scottish loaf has not the sweetness nor the fine creamy colour and texture of the oven-bottom baked "cottage" or "household" loaf either of Scotland or England. In fact the writer has tasted no bread either of Vienna or Paris or any other place that can compare with this type of bread for constant use.

Mr. Owen Simmons, speaking of this Scottish "brick" loaf, which is by far the most popular bread in Scotland, says that in the long process by which it is produced, as compared with the short four-hours-system loaf, "it is quite obvious that there must be some acid developed and very much more than in a short process. Acid cannot possibly be sweet and will be liked or disliked according to the taste acquired for it."

It is assumed seemingly by English writers that this bread is the only Scottish type. It is not; nor is it even an old type. It has made its place only during the past twenty-five years or so, owing to the excellent organisation of the great machine-bread factories of the big towns. It is surely a misfortune that it has caused Scottish housewives to cease making their own "household" bread, which was certainly better and more naturally flavoured and not less wholesome. Of course all the good family bakers in Scottish towns still make the many delightful traditional Scottish breads, but their sale has enormously decreased owing to the presence everywhere of the "brick" bread, and in country districts, where home-made bread was commonly used, only the "brick" loaf can generally be obtained.

Spa Bread

For well over two hundred years visitors to the famous health resort of Spa in Germany have been regaled with delightful little rolls—crisp of crust, soft yet light of crumb. These small loaves are made without leaven, fine wheaten flour being made into dough with the local ferruginous water and no other addition whatever. The dough rises splendidly (for the water contains carbonic acid and salts). When baked the bread is extremely light and digestible. Another peculiarity is that the outer crust is always rasped off, leaving an inner golden brown, crisp and slightly spongy crust, which is easily digested. How this method of making bread was hit upon is not known. Probably the very lightness of the loaves caused the outer crust to become overcooked and therefore rather bitter,

so it was rasped off as a matter of convenience. At all events, the result was eminently palatable and digestible, so quickly became appreciated, and now doctors point out that it is essentially hygienic, as it is the outer crust that is found to contain bacteria. "Spa bread" might well be tried in some of our health resorts possessing lightly mineralised waters, impregnated with carbonic acid gas.

Tea Cakes

Take one teaspoonful of cream of tartar, one teaspoonful of bicarbonate of soda, and two pounds of flour. Mix with milk. Having made the dough, roll it to a thickness of half an inch, then bake in the oven. When the first side is nicely browned, cook the other. The cakes should be split and buttered, and served hot if possible in a hot-water muffin dish with a cover.

CHAPTER IV

BAKERS' OVENS AND MACHINERY

THE first of all the baker's machinery is the oven. The oven is probably as old as Adam. The primitive form is still in use, and many examples of enlargements and early developments of it may be found in old country houses. The writer well remembers such an oven in an old moated English manor house of the early sixteenth century. It baked the sweetest bread he has known, save, that, perhaps he has eaten after it was taken from the flat iron oven or baking pan which has lain under the red ashes of a peat fire on the hearthstone of a Highland kitchen. The old English oven referred to was built of brickwork and was heated by burning half a "faggot" on the oven floor. A "faggot" in that part of England is a big bundle of last year's loppings of the smaller branches of trees with the twigs attached, and tied together with a withe. A whole faggot would be in weight almost as much as a man could carry on his back without strain. When the oven was heated the charred remains of the wood were removed, and the loaves, almost enough to feed a regiment, were placed on the bottom of the oven; or pastry and pies were baked, enough to feed a hungry Christmas party. That oven never failed to do its work well, and there can be no doubt of the sweetness of the articles baked. On this, indeed, all writers are agreed. Mr. Jago, for instance, says: "It is undeniable that if the manipulation of such an oven is properly understood and attended to, perfect results as regards baking can be obtained. The principal objections are want of fuel economy, loss of time in reheating, utter dependence upon skill, and absence of hygiene."

Mr. James Grant, head of the Fermentation Industries Department, Manchester, in his capital little book says of the internally heated ovens like the one described above: "They are of the original type and include the old-fashioned wood-heated oven which gives so sweet a crust, and has recently been proclaimed as the only kind of oven in which 'standard bread' can be baked."

Just a word may be added upon Mr. Jago's criticism. Of course the writer does not dispute his remark upon the point of the cost of heating with such an oven where a great baking business is concerned. For hotel and boarding-house use, however, where a much smaller supply is required, but that of the best quality as to flavour, the writer sees no reason why this old-fashioned oven should not be a practical possibility or even an adjunct to an ordinary baking business where high quality is essential for part of its trade. As to the cost, firewood has not greatly increased in price though coal has. In the district surrounding the old house mentioned, the whole faggot cost only threepence, and the price the writer knows by experience in a neighbouring county was before the

war the same. So that the cost of heating was not more than that of a gas-oven, or nearly as much as that of a coal-heated oven. Then as to Mr. Jago's remark on this kind of oven being utterly dependent on skill. In the case above cited no skilled labour other than that of the village girls was obtainable, and the lady of the house—who was able to feed her parties of thirty and forty visitors entirely on home-made bread and cakes and meat cooked in her ancient oven—had only the knowledge she had picked up from, it must be admitted, a thoroughly educated mother to guide her. She had, in fact, never seen this peculiar English type of oven before. From this it will be seen that even in the most antiquated kind of internally heated oven an intelligent non-tradeswoman housewife can easily grasp the points to be observed in heating and managing such an oven, either with or without the help of any local knowledge possessed by half-trained maids. We have dealt with Mr. Jago's criticism because in our British households we surely do not wish to rely even more than at present upon shop or machine-made articles, and so to further displace those which our grandmothers so successfully made at home, seeing that their daughters have not yet forgotten how to produce them.

With regard to Mr. Jago's remark about hygiene. There is, of course, nothing about an internally heated oven in itself to make it unhygienic—rather the contrary. For the rest in this as in every other kind of oven baking hygiene depends on the surroundings; and before using any oven its surroundings should be rendered thoroughly sweet and clean.

The Perkins Oven

The greatest advance in oven building was made by Angier March Perkins when he discovered his method of heating up to two thousand pounds per square inch of steam pressure contained in single hermetically sealed pipes, accompanied, of course, by an expansion vessel. The pipes are exposed to the fire at one end and, being placed both on the floor or "sole" and on the "crown" or top of the oven, the necessary temperature is soon reached. It was a very notable invention of a great inventor, and like so many of the best inventions was one of the very simplest. The first type of oven brought out by Perkins contained one great coiled pipe. He later found that the shorter lengths of single pipes were simpler, quite as effective, and had the great advantage of being easily removed and replaced where repair was necessary. Ovens of the kind have been kept in use for periods of forty years without showing any decline in efficiency.

The Perkins oven is now fitted with levers by means of which the heating can be shut off from the top of the oven or from the bottom when desired. The oven is loaded by placing the loaves on a sliding or wheeling trolley filled with iron trays. These trays are now often floored with tiles on which is stamped the name of the baker, which is stamped upon each loaf. By the trolley the placing of the bread on the actual iron is avoided and greater uniformity in firing is the result. Tiles are also cemented to

a nest of trays fitted on to an iron frame. By this means the oven can be loaded or "charged" with a greater number of loaves in a few minutes. In smaller ovens the old peel or baker's shovel is used for the work of loading.

The Drawplate Oven

For great bakeries the most notable of popular means of charging is by means of the drawplate which was suggested by Perkins and later projected and brought out by Messrs. Pfeleiderer. The drawplate is a flat tray with one end turned up at right angles. It is fitted upon wheels at one end, and it rests when pulled out on the oven sole at the other. These flat trays or plates are drawn out into the bakehouse and loaded with bread and then simply wheeled back into the oven. In large bakeries they are arranged in tiers or "decks" and are called "one" or "two-deck" ovens as the case may be. By this arrangement a great saving in fuel is effected, as one fire serves to heat all the tiers of drawplates.

Caterers' Portable Oven.—The portable drawplate oven is especially suitable for caterers. The "peel" oven is so called because it is charged by means of the old-fashioned "peel" or baker's shovel. These ovens are made both with one or two "decks."

The side-flue oven is a single decker. The furnace leads directly into it, the flame and heat are controlled by dampers and pass out by way of the flue.

An Hotel Oven.—What is called the Hotel oven is specially intended for use in large hotels. There are several types in the market suitable for the baking of Vienna rolls and hotel bread and pastry.

The Coverplate oven consists of a large flat hot-plate heated by pipes which can give either a top or bottom heat. The latter is done by means of hot pipes fitted into the cover, which is readily removable. This type of oven seems to the writer to possess possibilities for caterers. The idea of its inventor was an oven suitable for Scotch "batch" bread, but it would surely be an excellent one for a restaurant or hotel as one person could watch a goodly number of articles in the process of cooking. A glance would show the state of every article in the oven.

Heating.—Ovens are heated internally by wood which must not have been painted upon or have been near insanitary or strong-smelling articles. For externally heated ovens coal or coke is used, the latter largely in Scotland. Steam pipes are also much used as they are clean and economical, steady, and reliable. On the other hand they are somewhat dangerous and require skilled hands to watch them.

Gas and electricity-heated ovens will be dealt with in another section of the work.

Baking Machinery

It must be admitted that there are many processes in bread-making which lend themselves admirably to the use of machinery. They are essentially mechanical in character. The laborious and unpleasant work

of kneading, to take one notable instance, can clearly be better done by a machine. The employment of machinery in bread-making commenced many years ago, and many large factories have been set up which are fitted with complete bread-making plant, but speaking generally, machinery has only become really popular so far as a few of the operations are concerned.

Kneaders, Sifters, and Blenders.—The most popular machines have undoubtedly been the “kneader” and the “sifter.” The last named is placed on or immediately under the floor of the room above that in which the dough is kneaded. The sifter consists of a hopper and cylinder. The latter is fitted with a brush by which the flour is thoroughly stirred as it passes through sieves. These last are fixed in the floor and fitted with sleeves through which the flour passes to the kneading room beneath. By this means no lumps or pieces of dirt can reach the kneading trough. To the sifter a blender is often fixed. By this different kinds of flour are mixed and carried to the sifter by means of a revolving blade or blades. The flour is then either sent below to the kneader by means of the sifter sieve and sleeve as described, or is picked up by buckets and carried on a belt to be stored in the floor above. The kneader is the most popular of all pieces of baking machinery, for it saves a heavy and unpleasant task which can be done as well by a machine as by a man, or perhaps we should frankly say it is much better done because the human hand is always moist and must inevitably convey some part of its moisture to the dough. Good housewives long ago saw this and long ago took to making their puddings or their cakes without touching them by hand. A housewife can take time but in a bakery speed means economy and no one can think of these refinements. So that if a bakery is to use machinery at all a kneader should certainly be selected before every other piece of machinery. It has also been pointed out that a kneader is more thorough in the arduous task of working the dough so that every part of it receives some degree of exposure to the air and by that fact becomes better aerated and makes better bread.

The Dough Kneader.—The great service which a dough kneader can render was recognised 150 years ago by the French, and three natives of that land of born mechanics brought out kneading machines during the thirty-six years between 1760 and 1796. Finally a prize was offered by the French Government for the best dough kneader. This was won by Lembert in 1810. It was not, however, till some forty years later that the great success of another French kneader, the Boland, which was adopted by a Dublin firm, brought the machine into the realm of practical baking. A later French machine which is now largely used is the Deliry-Desbores. In this the kneaders or arms are worked on an axis placed in a trough or basin. Their effect is to work up and divide the dough alternately while the duty of exposing the dough to the air and so hastening the process of fermentation is performed by two other arms or blades. The whole work of kneading, it is considered, can be thoroughly accomplished in about fifteen minutes by this machine.

Taking into account only the kneaders which we still use, the "Rotary" mixer is also well known and much in request in smaller establishments. It is formed of a steel drum placed upon standards and fitted with doors. Below the drum is a trough. The mixers or blades do not move as in the other machines; they consist simply of fixed rods which stretch right across the drum. The whole of the action lies in the rotary motion which takes place when, the flour and water having been introduced into the drum, the machine is set in motion. Its rotation sends the dough against the fixed rods, which separate it at every turn. When the dough is eventually formed it is lifted up by each rising revolution of the drum and then falls against the mixing rods by gravitation. The merit of the machine is its simplicity, the absence of complicated parts, the small amount of power required to work it, and the fact that unlike the machines in which the kneading is accomplished by arms or blades, it is not likely to be overdone. That is, the dough is very apt to be overwrought by the activities of the bladed machines, or what is technically known as "felled." The "Rotary" is, in fact, a much less violent machine. It also has an advantage in occupying a small space and being cheap, while the mechanism is reduced to a minimum, which is no small merit. The time taken for effective kneading is about six minutes. Its disadvantages are that its work is not adapted to stiff strong doughs; it is not vigorous enough in action to deal with them. For places such as hotels, boarding-houses, and restaurants, where only a moderate quantity of bread is required and where "slack" doughs are used with a view to obtaining high qualities of flavour, such a machine should prove well suited.

The "Universal" is also a well-known machine for which it is claimed that it can accomplish its work in six minutes, about half the time occupied by the Deliry-Desbores. In this two curved arms rotate on horizontal axes in a horizontal trough which is divided into two portions separated by a ridge. Geared together so that they run at different speeds, each arm works in its own portion of the trough, first pressing the dough against the sides, then bringing it back towards the centre and pushing the dough from one half of the trough to the other. Thus each portion is subjected first to the arm working at one speed then to that working at the other. By this means thorough mixing is secured.

Pointon's "Viennara" kneader is also an excellent machine of the armed or bladed kind such as has been described. It is geared so that the movement of the arms is fast and slow alternately. The trough in which they move revolves and feeds the arms, as it were, by bringing the material under their influence at every revolution. The action of the arms is a stretching and folding one, the stretching being of value as it aerates the dough by exposing all its parts to the warm atmosphere of the bakery. The strokes of the arm are at the rate of twenty-six per minute and the revolutions of the fan are four and a half per minute. Thus the motion is slow and deliberate so that there is little fear of the dough being "felled." The finished dough is discharged into a truck which runs below the fan.

The machine is free from any objection as to the harbouring of material in the pan, which is in one plain piece of metal. The power required for this machine is reckoned to be about one-half that of the "Universal" made by the same firm. In the "Kempter" machine of similar design, the pan is removable so that it may be used as a dough trough.

The Moulding Machine.—Moulding is the process of shaping the loaf after it has been cut from the mass of dough. The object is to close up breaks that have been made in the surface in the act of detaching it so that the smooth surface or skin which has been formed on the dough may be made up over the abraded parts. This is essential in order to maintain the evenness of the fermentation which is taking place. Moulding has, of course, always been done by hand and is a skilled operation. Contact of the human hand with the damp hot dough is in all cases open to objection so that a machine to perform this delicate operation is highly desirable from the hygienic point of view. There are several moulders now in the market. One of the simplest is the "Pointon" patent which does its work on the rotary principle. The dough is led into a spiral trough which is fixed upon a revolving, cone-shaped table. The dough working inside the spiral-shaped trough is caught by grooves and ascends the cone, the outer skin of the dough being by the forward movement thus stretched for the whole length of the loaf. The trough slackens its motion towards the top of the cone and the tail of the loaf is "tucked in." The finished loaf then rolls off the table to give place to another. The trough is, of course, only suited for one size of loaf so that each bakery requires several troughs of different shapes for its various sizes of bread.

Another moulder is known as the "Flexible." In principle it is the same as the one last described and is by the same maker. A flat moving table made of metal laths runs over axles which have a steep incline. The troughs by the movement of a lever can be made quite straight at any moment so that they can mould loaves of any size from a quarter to four pounds in weight. The same machine is fitted with two troughs with a "splitter" which cuts the dough intended for two-pound loaves into pieces suitable for forming the "tops" and "bottoms" of cottage loaves, and with a "shaper" for shaping the tin loaves to fit the kind of tins in use in any bakery. This machine can turn out three thousand loaves an hour, each one being identical with the other in shape.

CHAPTER V

ECONOMICS OF THE BAKEHOUSE

When Should Machinery Come In ?

MACHINERY has been somewhat slow in making its way into the bread trade. The reluctance to adopt it often arises from the new responsibility which machinery entails. With merely manual labour the expenditure can be suited to a fluctuating demand, but when machinery has been adopted to any serious extent, it becomes no longer possible to go back. The investment must pay for itself or prove a loss ; the output cannot any longer be decreased by simply dismissing a man or two, for a decrease in business is accompanied by a considerable loss on plant. The hour cost of machinery remains a constant factor whether it is standing or producing.

The question then is at what stage can machinery be employed on a paying basis ? Many opinions have been expressed on this point.

It has been said that machinery only pays when there is an output of bread requiring forty or fifty sacks of flour per week. Others have made it pay with half that output ; while *The Bakers' Help* of Chicago, quoted by Mr. Simmons, says that machinery pays if there is a trade of twelve to fourteen barrels, that is, eight to ten sacks of 280 pounds per week ; and that in a shop using from twelve to fourteen sacks (twenty to twenty-five barrels) of flour per week, it will save the cost of one man. This statement, however, leaves out of account the important fact we have just pointed out, that though in case of temporary failure you may dismiss the man, you cannot dismiss the machinery !

It is therefore very necessary to weigh well all the possibilities and prospects before its adoption and then to consider whether all, or most, or only one or two of the processes should be done by machinery, or whether your case is strong enough to justify the erection of a complete outfit. Such a complete outfit is reckoned to turn 500 to 700 sacks of flour into bread per week.

For a Season's Trade ?—Again, it should be borne in mind that though the statements and figures which we have quoted may be of value to a hotel, restaurant, or boarding-house at which there is a constant round of visitors all through the year, they are quite useless and only misleading when applied to an establishment of any kind which only does a season's trade. No advice or estimate is of any value which does not take this important fact into account. On the face of it we should say that a place where business fluctuates with the seasons, as in a seaside or holiday town, is the least suitable for the adoption of machinery, for in such places the plant would lie idle for many weeks, perhaps months,

at a stretch, and so greatly increase the cost of the bread produced during the busy season.

To Bake or not to Bake

But the whole question of whether a caterer should bake his own bread requires very careful consideration. If the business is one of any great extent, the installation of a bakehouse will involve a fair capital outlay for troughs, dough kneaders, ovens, and other equipment, the setting aside of valuable space and probably the adding of one or two men to the pay roll. With proper care uniformly high-grade products may be secured; but it is only on a large trade that any material economy can be realised. Usually local bakers will be ready to enter into advantageous contracts with hotel or restaurant keepers and will be willing, on large, steady orders, to introduce any modifications suggested. The professional trading baker has much in his favour, being a wholesale buyer from the flour merchants or millers, he usually possesses good machinery and a competent staff, able to cope with sudden unforeseen demands. All of this is to the benefit of the caterer contracting with him. It is only where a caterer is sure of an average demand for bread equal to the output of a moderate-sized bakery, say not less than six sacks per week, that he can hope to be somewhat on a level with the baker. It is to be remarked that many bakers and pastrycooks evolve into caterers, but very few caterers ever become purveyors of bread to outside customers.

It is quite a different matter, however, when rolls and fancy breads are in question. The making of these entails very little outlay in the purchase of extra appliances. A quite moderate-sized gas or electric oven will suffice to turn out all the rolls and fancy bread required for a hotel with anything from fifty to 150 guests. Moreover, the pastrycook and his assistant, or one of the assistant cooks, will be able to deal with the matter, for the making of rolls can, in an hotel, usually be fitted into the kitchen and pastry department routine. There is much to be said in favour of preparing a variety of hot rolls in relays on the premises, especially those kinds required at breakfast and tea-time. The profits to be gained in this direction are decidedly handsome.

The question of "To bake or not to bake" for caterers, and more especially to hotel keepers, therefore resolves itself into a consideration of the capital outlay involved, the wages bill, and the volume and steadiness of the average output, as compared with the prices on a fair contract. As hinted, the supply of rolls and fancy breads and of ordinary bread should be considered on a separate basis, for the processes involved and the prices realised vary considerably.

CHAPTER VI

PASTRY AND CONFECTIONERY

PASTRY and confectionery play an important part in catering of every description. The preparation of a large section of the sweets usually served—pies, tarts, and many kinds of puddings, as well as ices—merge into the art of the pastrycook and confectioner. But what is more specially meant is the making of cakes and fancy biscuits. Of course, every well-trained cook must have a good knowledge of pastry and confectionery work, just as every confectioner must begin by acquiring the fundamental principles of cookery. How far specialising is to be carried in any given establishment will depend upon a variety of circumstances. In a large place serving high-priced meals an expert confectioner with one or more subordinates will be a necessary member of the *chef's* staff, and he will be responsible for turning out all sweets and often fancy rolls as well. In the generality of kitchens the sweets are not of a very elaborate character, at least, so far as decoration is concerned, and fall within the ordinary routine carried out by the chief cook and his assistants. Sometimes they too will bake fancy rolls and choice little cakes, and this applies very generally to taverns, licensed houses, and tea-shops, where the ordinary run of pastries are supplied on contract by pastrycook confectioners. This proves the most economical method, unless a very choice or a very large business is carried on. Often it is a good plan to prepare certain characteristic cakes in the kitchens of the establishment and to procure the "French" and "Italian" pastries, and such staple compounds as plum, seed, pound and cherry cakes from outside. A large variety of quite excellent slab cakes, both plain and glacé, can be obtained from manufacturing pastrycooks, often at a cheaper rate and rather better quality than if made on the premises of a moderate-sized business.

On the other hand, where popular catering is carried out on an extensive scale, with perhaps a number of branches drawing supplies from a central dépôt, then it certainly pays to bake all cakes and fancy biscuits, only going to the manufacturers for well-advertised articles that are in demand and with which competition would be unwise. Even when the most popular grade of catering is being carried on, it is well to have a pastrycook capable of originality, so that variety may be introduced occasionally, and one or two specialities evolved for the house. No matter what the grade of the house may be, it is always an excellent advertisement if customers can be got to declare that so and so is the only place where "such and such" a thing can be procured at all, or tasted at its best. That is the kind of free advertisement which draws. Moreover, a resourceful person can frequently save money by taking advantage

of any glut in the market. In many well-organised establishments those responsible for the pastry work do a certain amount of fruit preserving when such fruits as plums, gooseberries, currants, and blackberries are abundant, for these are easily preserved in water or weak syrup, to be stored ready for use when the "off" season comes.

Equipment

A good pastry oven is necessary in every busy kitchen. Where there is a special pastry section of the staff, two or more ovens are usually run. These have already been discussed in other parts of this work. It is only necessary here to point out the great merits of gas and electricity for this kind of work, and of the steam oven for the cooking of all puddings.

A very useful supplement to the ovens is a salamander, which is a covered pan, in which red hot charcoal or coke is placed, the pan then being held or rapidly passed over prepared cakes to complete glazing, or give slight colour. An electric appliance can now be procured for this kind of work.

The pastry department should be at once some distance from the ovens and cooking ranges, as it is essential that it should be kept as cool and light as possible. Indeed, much of the success in pastry and confectionery work depends upon temperature, for such materials as butter, milk and cream must not only be kept fresh but cool. Fats which become oily and cream which will not remain firm when whipped up are fatal to satisfactory results. All air coming from the outside, especially in towns, should be filtered, because dust plays havoc with jam-masked or sugar-glazed goods.

For large establishments both dough and cake mixing machines will be necessary. There must also be a number of different sized glazed earthenware bowls for mixing cake compounds, beating eggs, etc. Some of these should be lipped, to facilitate the gradual pouring out of mixtures. For mixing, wooden spoons, spatulas, and wire whisks are best. A marble mortar with pestle will also be required, as well as nutmeg and lemon zest graters, coffee mill and other grinders and mincers. We have already described elsewhere the different kinds of appliances for washing fruit, storing raisins, coring, peeling, and slicing fruit. These are all sources of comfort and economy. Of course there must be scales and measures.

The pastry-board should be made of marble, slate or boxwood. Puff paste is always easier to make on marble or slate. The board should not be less than four feet by five feet and placed at a convenient height. With these should be large and small rolling pins in boxwood, and also medium and small ones in porcelain, highly glazed.

Other appliances required will be sieves of different sizes and fineness, filters, bain-maries, deep and shallow saucepans, preserving and sugar pans, also pie dishes and pudding basins of all sizes and shapes, and moulds. Cake tins are generally sold in nests of assorted sizes—round, oval and square—and these include plain, fluted and crinkled patty flanc and tart-

let pans, as well as rings. With these go wire and tin plate trays for baking and cooling off. In a busy establishment it is impossible to have too large and varied an assortment of moulds. Besides the conventional patterns for Genoa and sponge cakes, jellies and blancmange, there must be both large and individual portion moulds of fancy kinds, suitable for any description of entertainment. The small cake and ice-moulds also lend themselves to great variety of decoration. The same liberality must be shown as regards large and small and plain and fancy cutters for stamping out paste and slices of cake.

For the sugar and finishing department will be required palette icing knife, cannellons (short moulding tubes of different diameters), piping bags with plain, star and fancy tubes.

Materials

We have already dealt with the question of flour in the Bakery and Bread section. It will only be necessary to say here that for pastry flour should be fairly strong—the best English or Canadian—and should be kept dry. For many purposes it is as well to have a supply of self-raising flour at hand. This may be prepared as follows: Place eighty pounds of fine flour in a trough, then add one pound of carbonate of soda, three quarters of a pound of cream of tartar, half pound of tartaric acid, and one pound of salt, by rubbing them through a sieve to break up. Mix thoroughly and then pass the whole mass through a sieve two or three times in order to aerate.

Rice-flour, potato fecula and chestnut-flour should also be in store. Many delicious American and Polish confections are prepared with buckwheat flour, and some of the Italian recipes include the yellow maize meal.

Stale and broken sponge cakes, also cake and biscuit crumbs, should be carefully stored in air-tight tins, as they prove useful ingredients in preparing fillings.

Sugars should include fine icing, castor, lump, and crushed candy.

The question of fats is a difficult one. Undoubtedly it is impossible to beat the dainty nutty flavour of good butter, and so undoubtedly where choice quality is the aim, butter alone will be used for most purposes. Butter should be sweet, firm, and tough; if short and crumbly, or soft and oily, it will not make good pastry, and assuredly not of the puff paste order.

Nut butters differ enormously from true milk butter, not the least in the fact that the best qualities are both colourless and flavourless. If good, it does fairly well for ordinary pastry and especially for fillings containing cocoanut. It should be firm, not oily. Margarines are usually compounds of purified beef fat and vegetable fats. Normally they are of the palest brownish yellow, but are usually artificially coloured.

For commercial purposes a mixture of margarine and butter is found useful in confectionery work, for even if the best quality of both materials be employed, it comes to at least thirty per cent. cheaper than pure

butter. Practically it is found to have the further advantage of giving substance to butter in hot weather, and consequently makes the preparation of puff paste easier than if the more costly material was used alone.

Good lard makes excellent second-class pastry for pie-crust and so on. It may be used alone, or in combination with from half to a quarter of butter.

Beef suet, deprived of its membranes and chopped fine, but not so fine as to produce a greasy mass, is the best fat for boiled or steamed puddings and crusts. It is indispensable in the confection of plum pudding. When other fats are used for this purpose the pudding becomes soft, not firm. Suet, for the same reason, is also necessary for the whole class of "sandy" puddings, such as the dry ginger pudding. Mutton suet is less expensive, and if of good quality and carefully used will give excellent results. All skin must be removed, the mincing must be fine but not overdone (sprinkling over with a little flour will prevent oiling); the fat should be employed with moderation, and the cooking thorough.

Mixtures

It is not proposed to provide a collection of recipes, but the composition of certain standard and general utility mixtures is given below.

Pastry Mixtures.—For first-class puff paste one pound of butter and one egg (with a little cold water) are necessary for every pound of strong, white flour. A cheaper mixture is known as three-quarter paste; three quarters of a pound of butter with a little egg-powder being used with every pound of flour. Confectioners' paste is composed of two pounds of flour, one and a quarter pounds of sugar and twelve whites of eggs. For raised pie-crust add to every two pounds of flour a quarter pound of suet, quarter pound of margarine, a teaspoonful of salt and a pint of water. For large quantities of cheaper quality pies add to every twelve pounds of flour one and a half pounds of lard, three quarters of a pound of margarine, one ounce of salt and three and a half pints of water.

Icing.—The quantities for fondant icing are: seven pounds of loaf sugar, a pinch of cream of tartar, colouring and flavour to taste and one pint of water. **Royal Icing.**—Three and a half pounds of icing sugar, half pint of white of egg and a tablespoonful of acetic acid. **Water Icing** is merely icing sugar melted in hot water to the consistency required.

Fludge is the technical term for diluted jam used for coating or masking. The jams used are apricot, greengage, and other seedless varieties. It is prepared by placing one pound of jam in a pan with three gills of hot water, then the whole being rubbed together when the strained juice of a lemon is added, and then brought to the boil. Meanwhile two heaped tablespoonfuls of arrowroot are mixed in cold water, and then worked into the boiling jam, which is sweetened if necessary. Fludge when required for masking must be used hot, but any remaining over can be warmed up and added to various fillings.

Fillings

Most fillings require to be made freshly soon before use. On the other hand there is an important class, such as mince for mince pies, Scotch bun mixture, which are all the better for being made some time ahead and kept in well-sealed pots until wanted.

Custard.—A fine custard is prepared by adding to every pint of raw new milk two whole eggs and two yolks, three ounces of sugar, and nutmeg or vanilla to taste. For a cheaper custard, to every pint of new milk add six ounces of sugar, three pounds of fine flour, four whole eggs and essence to flavour.

Cheesecake.—For a choice mixture add to every pound of stale sponge cake three-quarters of a pound of sugar, three-quarters of a pound of butter, six eggs, half pint of milk and essence to flavour. For a cheaper mixture take one ounce of cornflour, four ounces of butter, six ounces of sugar, four yolks of eggs, four lemons and a pint of milk.

Apple Cheesecakes.—Take six ounces of apples (cored and peeled), four ounces of bread or cake crumbs, six ounces of sugar, eight ounces of butter, six yolks of eggs, two lemons and a little nutmeg.

Maids of Honour.—For choice filling take twelve ounces of dry curd, eight ounces of butter, eight ounces of sugar, six baked potatoes, two ounces of ground sweet almonds, one ounce of bitter almonds, quarter ounce of grated nutmeg, six yolks of eggs, four lemons and a glass of brandy. For a cheaper filling take one quart of milk, one tablespoonful of rennet, quarter pound of butter, quarter pound of currants, essence of lemons and a little nutmeg.

Banbury Cake.—To every pound of stale cake add one pound of currants, quarter pound of sultanas, quarter pound of chopped peel, one and a half ounces of ground mixed spice, six eggs, essence of lemons and a wineglassful of rum.

Oriental Cheesecake.—Take four ounces of dried figs, four ounces of dates, two ounces of glacé ginger, six ounces of sponge cake, two ounces of sugar, three ounces of butter, three eggs, a little fresh milk, essence of pineapple.

(This filling is placed in open puff paste cases, then masked with pineapple-flavoured meringue and piped in appropriate designs with icing sugar.)

Almond Filling.—Take one and a quarter pounds of loaf sugar, six ounces of ground almonds, four ounces of ground rice, three yolks of eggs, half a pint of water, and a little essence of almonds.

Cocoanut Filling.—Take ten ounces of desiccated cocoanut, eight ounces of loaf sugar, one and a half pounds of butter, one gill of water, four whites of eggs, a little essence of vanilla, and cochineal to colour.

Banana Filling.—Take half a pound of butter, half pound of sugar, half pound of pared and cored apples, quarter pound of sponge cake crumbs, four large ripe bananas, one teaspoonful of essence of tangerines, four whites of eggs, and a little nutmeg.

Mincemeat.—To every pound of stoned raisins add a quarter pound of currants, three-quarters of a pound of mixed candied peel (cut fine), one pound of beef suet, six large apples, one pound of lean roast sirloin of beef (chopped fine), three-quarters of a pound of moist sugar, one ounce of ground mixed spice, the grated rind and juice of two lemons, quarter pint of brandy, quarter pint of Madeira, sherry or port. **Royal Mincemeat** is composed of equal weights, say one pound, of lean roast beef, raisins, currants, suet, mixed candied peel, stewed pears, preserved ginger, and sugar ; spice to taste, the zest and juice of four oranges and four lemons, a wineglass of rum, one of brandy and one of port. For **Lemon Mincemeat**, add to boiled and pounded lemons half pound of castor sugar, half pound of suet, half pound of currants, half pound of chopped raisins, quarter ounce of mixed spice, and brandy and port wine to taste.

Plum Pudding Mixture.—Equal weights of bread-crumbs, raisins, currants, suet, brown sugar, candied peel, half the weight of flour, and for every one pound of flour add half ounce of blanched and chopped sweet almonds, half ounce of mixed spice, two eggs and a tablespoonful of brandy, and a little milk. A cheaper mixture is made by substituting apple pulp for half the weight of candied peel and raisins, increasing the amount of flour and substituting brown ale for the brandy and milk.

Scotch Bun.—For every twelve pounds of flour take one and a half pound of butter, one pound of sugar, one pound of cinnamon, one pound of mixed spice, one ounce of white pepper, three pounds of chopped candied orange peel, half a pound of chopped candied citron peel, thirty pounds of currants, fifteen pounds of stoned raisins, ten pounds of sultanas, ten pounds of almonds (blanched and chopped), twelve pounds of sliced preserved ginger syrup, one pint of fresh milk.

Useful Hints

For wholesome pastry of the cheaper class, desiccated cocoanut and pumpkin will be found exceedingly useful. Bananas also make a cheap material for fillings, but they require to be flavoured with expensive ingredients, otherwise they are apt to be rather insipid. Desiccated cocoanut should be stored plain and candied, and can be used chopped for filling mixtures, or finely shredded or pounded for sprinkling over mixtures. It is a nourishing substance which is generally much appreciated.

Pumpkin should be prepared for use thus : Peel and remove the seeds ; cut up small and stew, adding six ounces of sour cooking apples (peeled and cored), four ounces of white sugar and a pint of water to every pound of pumpkin. When quite tender add a little cinnamon and pass the whole through a sieve. Pot for use. To this foundation may be added glacé cherries, washed currants, sultanas, raisins, almonds, cocoanut or candied fruit according to taste and in proportions that price may dictate.

Meringue is prepared in various ways, but the following will be found to answer well. To every pound of loaf sugar dust add from six to eight

whites of eggs. The whites of eggs are first beaten up with a pinch of salt, then the sugar is added through a sieve, well beaten up, and the mixture kept in a cool place.

Coloured and flavoured butters should be soft, but not oily. Therefore the butter must not be melted, but should be beaten up with a fork or whisk, the colouring and flavouring ingredients being added gradually. In very cold weather the bowl containing the butter may be placed in another containing hot water, but only for sufficiently long to make manipulation easy. Both sweet and savoury butters are prepared thus. In the case of almond, hazel, and pinenut butters, the nuts are usually roasted in the oven and then pounded to fine dust, chopped nuts being added afterwards if desired. A little sifted sugar for the sweet butter, and a little salt with a touch of cayenne or paprika for all the savoury butters, are generally added to heighten the flavour.

Cooling and Freezing Mixtures

As already mentioned, low temperatures are very necessary in a good deal of confectionery work. Ice is not always available or cheap, and so some kind of freezing mixture is desirable. Several may be used with advantage. If broken ice is available it may be placed in a pail of water together with half a pound of salt. Bowls and other vessels containing butter, cream, and other substances can be plunged in this. The salt has the effect of lowering the temperature considerably and so economises the ice. When there is no ice, take four ounces of crystallised muriate of ammonia and eight ounces of sulphate of soda, crush and place in a pail of water. Vessels containing substances to be cooled or frozen are plunged into the mixture. Another effective combination consists of six ounces of sulphate and six ounces of muriate of ammonia crushed and added to a pail of water. In either case the temperature is sufficiently low to induce freezing after lengthy exposure. Carafes or jugs filled with pure water or lemonade plunged nearly to the neck into the mixture will soon have an internal lining of frozen water (clouded ice), the *carafe frappé* of the French café-restaurants. This, by the way, is a form of refrigeration which might be more freely introduced over here.

Scones are greatly improved if after being shaped and egg-washed they are placed in a cold store for half an hour before baking. This causes them to rise, so that, though large, they are exceptionally light.

In preparing mixtures for different classes of trade, it must be remembered that cheap custom likes and expects bulk. Higher priced goods can be made appreciably smaller. Indeed, for afternoon teas in select establishments all the cakes, plain or otherwise, must be quite small. Buns should be about one-third the size of ordinary penny buns. Scones, circular or triangle, ought not to be more than two inches across. Victoria rolls are made of sponge four inches square and one-eighth thick, or the sponge may be twelve inches by four inches, quite thin, and when coated with jam, rolled lengthwise and cut into three or four pieces. Darioles, brioches, and fancy cakes must all be on the same miniature

scale. The same rule is observed with wafers and *petit fours* served with ices. With the latter free use is made of almond paste, marzipan and highly-flavoured icing sugar, but butter-piping is avoided, though fillings, if covered over, may be rich and soft. These small cakes are usually made very ornamental and practically merge into a class of goods turned out by the sweet maker. One advantage of not using butter-piping or filling, or cream, is that these fancy cakes can be kept fresh for several days if stored in a cold, air-tight receptacle.

CHAPTER VII

SUGAR BOILING AND CONFECTIONERY

THE manufacture of sweets and other confections has of late years been carried on to such a high pitch of perfection that home-made or even local productions are outclassed by the large manufacturers whose trade enables them to obtain the latest machinery and the costliest of moulds and kindred appliances; but notwithstanding there are instances to be found where owing to isolation or the exceptional opportunity due to a wise policy of "specialising" it is possible to create and profit by a reputation for pure sweets, free from anything, however harmless, other than natural products. Moreover, among that already extensive and growing class of what may be styled the all-round business, combining catering, confectionery, bread and pastries, etc., judicious specialising in sweets often means good business, more particularly if care is taken to cultivate trade with those amongst whom a predilection for old-fashioned sweets and "goodies" is becoming quite the vogue. There is a vast number of young mothers in the better-class districts surrounding the largest industrial centres who make a cult of the quasi-simple-life principles in raising their families, and who will deal exclusively and often quite extensively with those who can supply the simple sweets of this class, with a guarantee of first-rate quality, personal preparation, and purity. The following details, therefore, must not be taken as touching more than the fringe of the modern confectionery business, still, in the limited space available, attention has been strictly confined to what is essential for the successful and reasonably easy execution of sugar boiling by those who wish to specialise but have had little experience of this particular branch of the confectioner's business.

Business Principles

In order to focus the aims of the subsequent instructions it is desirable to first emphasise a few fundamental principles on which success depends.

Those who entertain this branch should first of all absolutely disabuse their minds of all intention of competing with the ordinary sweet shop. They must cater for a special clientele and introduce their products by a neat and brief leaflet stating wherein they differ from the usual run of sweetmeats; wherein they excel; and whereby they appeal for the patronage of those who can discern the justice of their claims and will therefore support them by their purchases.

Have only the best of materials, such as genuine cane sugars, West Indian maple and the like. Aim at scrupulous cleanliness (not gaudy display) in making and vending. Let good taste be the key-note, and simplicity the whole gamut of your endeavours.

Then figure out the cost, add a sound profit, and, having fixed your price, adhere to it rigorously. Explain when necessary why you are not as cheap as Mr. So and So, but do it tactfully yet not apologetically. If you have the right stuff for those who want it, you must also have the right price for yourself. Encourage your customers to discuss the "children's sweets" question, and unobtrusively canvass their likes and ideas. Where possible try to work out a sweet of your own of some special shape, flavour, or appearance, which embodies the ideas you have thus gathered, but which nevertheless is characteristically your own. Don't expect too quick a return for your endeavours, you are on the slow but safe and sound lines, catering for the once-made-always-come-again customers. Don't try too many sorts at first. Don't make too much at once. Better be sold out till next week than have stale or soiled stock. Lastly, don't countenance early disappointments, but dispel them by steady and renewed endeavour and success will come unawares. Remember that after once breaking the ice, a flagging trade is greatly helped by a small judicious gift to a customer's child (in the presence of the customer). It is the cheapest advertising for new lines and better than old stock.

General Principles of Sugar Boiling

For the purpose of the small maker it is sufficient to confine attention to the four main classes of sweets obtained by boiling sugar according to the height to which the temperature is carried, namely, boiled icings, fondants, glacé goods, toffees and caramels. In all cases great cleanliness is essential; the purest and often clarified sugars must be used to work with. Exercise great care to avoid the presence of dust in the boiling pan and about the place. Calm, fine weather is helpful to the physical conditions affecting successful working. Icings need some artistic taste and an ability akin to freehand drawings. Always use finest confectioner's sugar passed through a hair sieve. Fondants or, as the word means, "cream" goods, are very easy to make and do not need cream from the dairy, but are so called from the feel of the sugar so treated on the tongue. For this class West Indian maple sugar is recommended. If not obtainable use good quality Tate cubes. For glacé goods everything used *must* be dry, and especially the fruits, etc. For toffees a dry and if possible bright day is essential. For general working conditions remember that a dry atmosphere, preferably about 70° F., is important. Always use the thermometer carefully and strictly. Accuracy in temperature is the prime factor in success. It is not a scientific fad. An error of a few degrees may spoil the boil. Studiously avoid a damp atmosphere due to climatic conditions, or the escape of steam from boilers, saucepans or hot freshly baked bread, cakes, etc.

Stages of Boiling

There are eleven separate steps or stages in the process which yield the different classes of goods just enumerated. They are known techni-

cally as follows :—(1) Small thread ; (2) large thread, 215° to 217° F. (for boiled icing). (3) Small pearls, (4) large pearls, 220°-222° F. These are all syrups up to this stage, then crystallisation begins. (5) Blow, 230° F. To test, dip the skimmer in and pick up a film of sugar in the loop. Blow on to it and it will form a bubble. (6) Feather, 232° F. To test, dip in skimmer as before and bubble the film ; on shaking it fine threads like feathers will fly off from the bubble. (7) Soft or small ball, 238°-240° F. (required for fondants). (8) Hard or large ball, 246°-252° F. To test, wet dipping-stick and put into the boiling sugar, then plunge the stick into cold water. The adhering sugar can be worked with the fingers into a ball. (9) Small crack, 260°-290° F. (for glacé fruits, etc.). (10) Large crack, 290°-300° F. Test : Dip as before but plunge into ice cold water, when the sugar film will crack. (11) Caramel, 300°-352° F. (for various kinds of caramels and the hardbakes, such as almond hardbake, etc.). Care must be taken, after the colour of the sugar begins to darken, not to raise the temperature too quickly or the sugar will char and become bitter and acrid in taste and then only be fit to make burnt sugar or colouring with and is no use as genuine caramel. It is advisable to add a little lemon juice directly the colour begins to darken in order to minimise accidents.

Implements and Accessories

Not many tools are required, though moulds, toffee markers, etc., may be bought if desired. The two most important things are the pan and the thermometer. The pan should be of well-tinned iron or aluminium, of deep preserving-pan shape with gently sloping sides. It is best to buy a proper boiling-pan. A gas-ring or boiling ring stove of size to suit the pan. A sugar-boiler's thermometer. This is the most important tool. Makeshifts and homely substitutes can be found for most of the requisites sold by confectioners' outfitters but the thermometer must be a properly graded sugar-boiling thermometer. Get a good, strongly made one from a good scientific instrument-maker and don't begrudge the price. A marble slab (the top of an old washstand will do). Spatulas, wood and metal, (a thin unvarnished paper-knife and a thin, flexible dinner or carving knife will serve the purpose). For dipping-sticks clean, middle-size butchers' wooden skewers may be used. A fairly stiff pastrycook's brush and an icing pipe and cones are best bought. They are not expensive. A wire skimmer (two or three lengths) can be made by bending a piece of clean galvanized iron wire to the shape of a hair-pin with legs about seven inches long. Form a loop at the bent end, the size and shape of a small teaspoon (without any bowl) then twist the two end-pieces round each other to make a handle. A scraper can be made out of half a flat biscuit-tin lid (about four inches wide and five long) by bending one end round a ruler to form a handle or grip, leaving the flat scraping piece about three inches long and four wide. A supply of cold and perfectly clean water, and occasionally a little ice should be at hand. Also a little glucose and cream of tartar.

General Procedure

The great object in boiling is to prevent granulation, therefore have the pan perfectly free from dust and quite cleaned of all remains from any previous use. Soak the crystals or cubes of sugar in a little cold, clear water, stir with wooden spatula and heat gently till the crystals begin to dissolve. Then don't stir or move the thermometer. Wipe the sides of the pan quite clean with the brush wetted with water right down to the edge of the syrup so as to remove all stray or adhering crystals. Cover with a clean thick coarse cloth and heat until steam begins to escape fairly freely. Look to see if the syrup is clear, and if so begin to boil to the desired heat. If the point is overstepped through too rapid heating, turn out gas, allow to cool somewhat, then add a little water and try again, heating more carefully. As an alternative carry to a higher temperature if other goods are to be made, but the contents need not be wasted if the right point is overshot. Still, always try to avoid doing so. For the beginner and in fact almost always it is best to add half saltspoonful of cream of tartar to every pound of sugar on reaching the crack.

Clarification is sometimes necessary. To do this dissolve the crystals in a little water, add the white of an egg, and remove the scum as it rises to the surface.

Products of the Boil

Icings.—The base-board or the things to be coated must be quite dry. Spread boiled icing with the metal spatula dipped in hot water. Other icing and piping mixture (for use in cones) is prepared by mixing finest icing sugar to a paste with white of egg to which flavouring has been added. A pipe is fitted into a cone, which is filled with the mixture, and the top turned in. By pressing the top with the thumb the icing is forced out through the pipe and any desired device traced freehand.

Fondants or Creams.—Add one and a half gills of water to two pounds of sugar, treat exactly as in "General Procedure" instructions. When a clear syrup is obtained gently put in the thermometer and boil to the soft ball. Avoid stirring just before the ball. Pour on to a slab, allow to cool a little. Add colouring and flavouring and knead on slab with metal spatula aided by the scraper to a creamy consistency. Keep in air-tight jars. If desired a teaspoonful of glucose may be added just before the soft ball stage is reached to check granulation and facilitate kneading.

Glacés.—Fruits, pieces of apricot, prunes, sweet almonds and whatnot are coated with the sugar boiled to small crack, but they must be quite dry or the glacé won't adhere.

Toffees and Candies.—Consult the special precautions given under "General Procedure." The pan must have a capacity at least four times that of the materials being used. Proceed as for the fondants but carry boil to 300° F. (large crack). Example (a): To make a plain toffee add half cupful of water to two and a half cupsful of sugar. Take to

240° F. without stirring. Then add tablespoonful of butter and half teaspoonful lemon juice, mix and boil to large crack. Pour into greased tins and score with greased knife. A tip may be learned by those who wish to specialise in toffees, and that is to experiment on the addition of varying amounts of pepper with different flavouring. Some very pleasing and characteristic toffees can be made in this way. Remember there are various kinds of pepper which have individual flavours according to the texture after grinding and freshness of the liberated essential oil. (See "Kitchen Hints and Economies," pp. 94-5).

Example (b): For Russian toffee bring one pound sugar and half a pint of fresh dairy cream up to about 240° F. Add half a pound good butter, a few drops of essence of vanilla, and boil to 260° F. or even 280° F. (which is just short of the crack, but be careful to avoid rising to the full small crack). When cool enough wrap "nuts" of the toffee in thin, fairly soft buttered grease-proof paper.

It will be noticed that special toffees are obtained by varying the temperature of the boil up to the large crack. In the same way candies such as barley sugar may be obtained, and a little experiment with an intelligent understanding of the objects of the eleven stages of boiling will yield specialised products that attract as novelties.

Example :—Barley sugar is prepared from say one pint of clarified sugar in a spouted pan. Carry up to the commencement of the small crack, or even higher. Add ten drops of good essence of lemon and continue boil to 300° F. or even slightly into the caramel stage until the characteristic pale yellow tinge is attained. Pour on to slab slightly moistened with sweet oil. When cool enough cut with scissors into strips six inches long by one inch, and twist strips into familiar shape. Keep in dry, cool place in tins sealed with paper bands to avoid going sticky.

Pulled Sugar

A number of pretty effects for decorative purposes can be obtained by adding to the sugar well-chosen tints of colourings (which can be obtained from one of the many good houses who specialise therein) at about soft ball stage and then hanging the mixture over a large hook, hung at a convenient height and "pulling" the sugar into a length, twisting and otherwise working as taste dictates. This is a thing that can only be learned by practical experience, and unless quite exceptional circumstances render its use imperative it is better, and often cheaper in the long run, to purchase these goods ready made.

Sweets in the Menu

Sweets are of importance as part of the menu and also on account of the wide range of pretty decorative effects that can be obtained by the selection of pralines, ice-decorated chocolates and fruit-essence dessert chocolates, Satinettes, Duchess, Hibernia, Newmarket and similar mixtures.

Marzipan walnuts and crystallised or fancy sugar-coated fruits of various kind always find favour, especially where the party includes

ladies or children. Cosaques also are made now in large variety and suitable for all occasions, and no longer rank as essentially Christmas goods. In catering for mixed parties they attract ladies and children who frequently curtail their participation in the earlier parts of a menu in order to enjoy more fully the sweets at dessert.

A good practice is to study the productions of the large firms who specialise in these, and to note the points essential to the preparation of an effective display, varied as occasion may require. In some cases it is possible to arrange with such firms for the supply of a full range of assorted goods which can be returned (of course in good order) after the weight of each package has been checked, so that only the actual quantities used have to be paid for.

Care should be taken to avoid mixtures containing mints, liquorice and similar strong flavours for dessert, preference being given to liqueur, fruit and banana essence fillings.

When proper cardboard trays and bon-bon dishes are not available suitable ornamental border tinted papers should always be cut out to suit each class of sweet and placed on the saucers, etc., used. Jap trays in imitation papier-maché are also often effective and are light and unbreakable.

Fillings and Recipes

These are legion and formulæ abound in all classes of trade literature so that they would be a mere redundancy in a work of this nature, but an explanation of two of the more complicated, namely, almond paste and marzipan, will serve to enable practical use to be made of the hundred and one recipes that are available to the trade, which to the occasional user would otherwise be more or less unintelligible.

Almond paste is made by working up four ounces of well-pounded almonds (varying proportions of sweet and bitter according to object); six ounces of castor sugar or icing sugar, with the white of one egg, and then thoroughly incorporating two teaspoonfuls of brandy, two of rum (or else rosewater, according to taste), and two drops of good essence of vanilla. Mix in a bowl with a wooden spoon to form a stiff paste.

Marzipan.—Add one gill of water to one pound of loaf sugar and boil to the soft ball; then add twelve ounces of well-pounded almonds and stir to an even paste. Let cool a little, then add one unbeaten egg if wanted tinted, or the whites of two eggs if desired white, and continue to heat gently until the paste begins to leave the sides of the pan when stirred. Cool on grease-proof paper for twenty-four hours. Prepare fondant cream as previously described and add one-third the bulk of the almond preparation and knead in until quite smooth. Shape as desired, dredge with icing sugar, and keep in a cool place till quite cold.

Both of these are used not only for fillings for sweets, but also for icing cakes, as well as for moulding and modelling in all kinds of ways for the decoration of cakes and other confections and the dessert table.

PART V

STABLES AND GARAGE

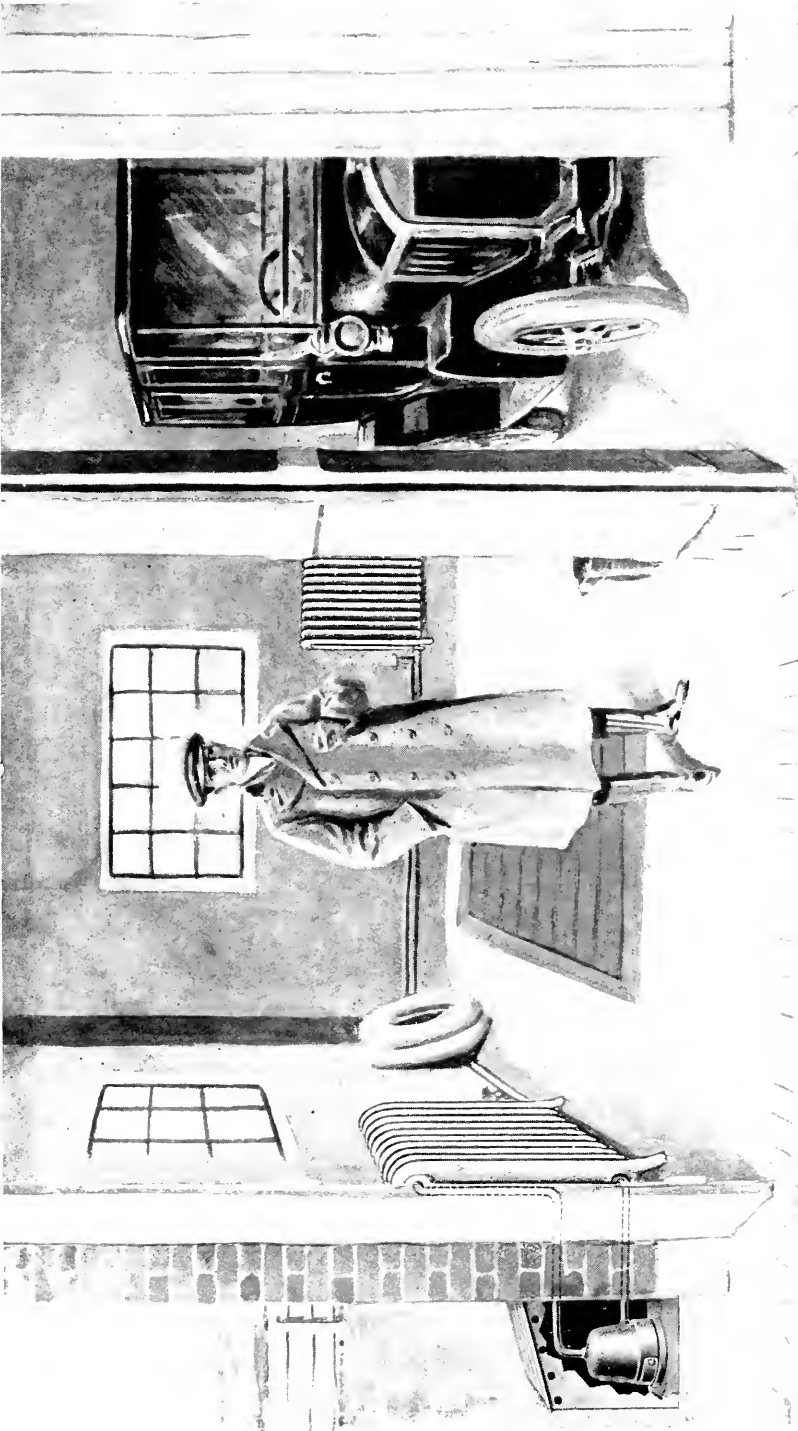
CHAPTER I

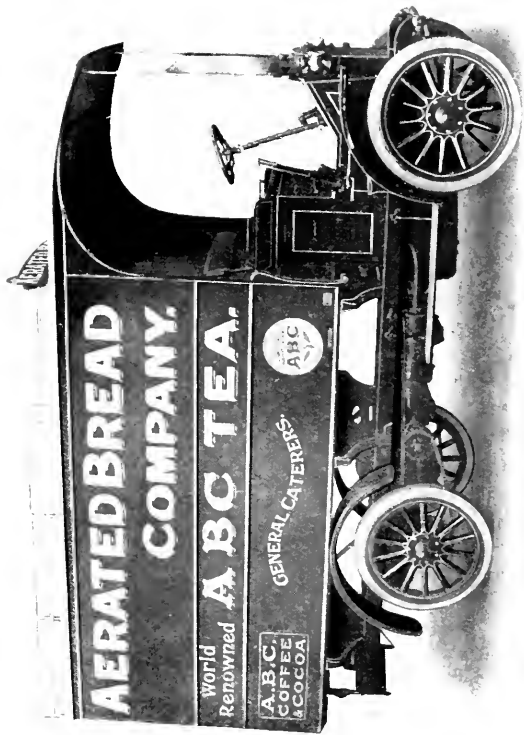
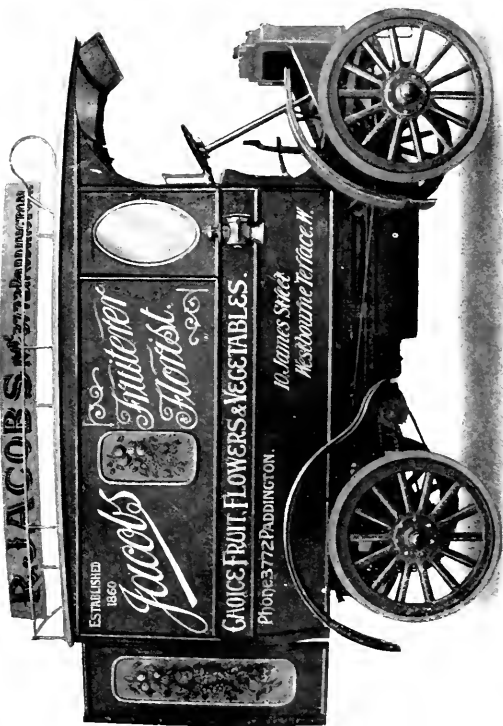
STABLES AND STABLING

Stables

THE importance of the proprietor acquiring some knowledge of stable management and the care of horses has been referred to, and the following general hints will enable the inexperienced to do so sufficiently to give such supervision as will maintain the efficiency of the stable-youth's service. There is a great risk in trusting unrestrainedly to the ability of a stableman or ostler, as the following actual instance will prove. The proprietor of a large country station hotel kept a horse and trap for hiring and had stalls for fourteen horses, but he knew nothing about horses and could not be induced to take the least trouble to pick up elementary principles. He always contended he could trust his young ostler (who lived in the house) because he came from the stables of Major —— at the Hall. There came the young ostler's evening off and only one horse was left in the stables, and that only wanted the collar and head piece putting on. The proprietor was shown how to turn the collar upside down to get it over the head of the horse and the ostler was then allowed to take himself off on his "bike." When the owner came off the train the proprietor served him and several friends and leaving the bar in charge of someone else went and put the horse in. When it came round to the door it was greeted with shouts of laughter, for the proprietor had put on the collar, but never reversed it again, so that the traces pulled all wrong and the hame rings for the reins were somewhere under the horse's neck instead of up to the withers, and the reins ran straight from the turret rings down to the bit. It never occurred to the ostler to point out that the collar being put on upside down would want reversing, as the proprietor had driven his own turn-out miles and miles.

Now the owner of the horse was a horse-breeder and breaker, and had a good following who used the house three or four times a week. Naturally there was much chaff about the incident, but unfortunately the proprietor was a man who could not stand much of the laugh against himself, with the result that whereas the breeder and his friends formerly spent pounds a month in the house, in a little while they only spent pence. After this the young ostler became more master than man than ever





TYPES OF MOTOR VANS
FOR CATERERS.

and did pretty well what he liked in the stables, and his master would hear nothing against him although occasional complaints arose. One day it chanced that a gentleman drove up to take out while the ostler was out on an errand "for the mistress of the house," and knowing of the proprietor's former contretemps the writer told him to take the horse out, then he would see to it for him. Later the gentleman returned and when the writer went to help put his horse in followed him into the stables. His horse had only been on the pillar rein so it was quickly put in. The owner brusquely paid the landlord his stance money, walked out without taking any refreshment, and drove off without a word. Perceiving something was amiss the writer asked permission to go back into the stables. Although the stalls were neatly littered down with straw a closer investigation revealed that seven out of twelve mangers were more or less full of droppings from horses that had stood on the pillar rein; and some could not have been cleaned out for days. Returning to the house the writer asked how often the stables were cleaned and was assured they were done every day and that the ostler had told his master only that morning that he had done the stables out "all right." When taken and shown the actual state of affairs the proprietor was as amazed as he was annoyed. Now it afterwards transpired that the gentleman who put up and drove off was a veterinary. The ostler went soon after that, but it was not many months before the proprietor went too. He gave up keeping the hotel because it would not keep him, and he was a man of means to start with. Had he acquired even a book knowledge of the outlines of stable management things might have been very different.

Their Arrangement.—Stables should be lofty and well ventilated. Ventilation is of the greatest importance as catarrh is frequently contracted through breathing air contaminated by the stale gases from the urine. But good ventilation must not be procured at the risk of draughts. Avoid a wooden floor. Concrete or blue bricks are best, and there should be a fair fall from the manger to the gutter at the rear of the stall to ensure the urine draining away from the bedding. The actual drainage also should be good and convey all liquids outside the stable. If possible never have a catch-pit in the stable. Keep the gutters and drains clear and well flushed.

The actual cubic capacity of a stable is not a guide to the purity or sufficiency of the air breathed. Also vitiation of the dangerous order does not come from fairly fresh droppings or urine, but from their decomposition products in corners, gutters, and drain-pipes. Look into these and under grids occasionally. Keep mangers scrupulously clean always.

Care of Horses

Without going into anything like detail the following points will suffice to ensure efficiency. As soon as a horse comes into the stable always have the feet looked at and if necessary clean them out. This will also make sure that the shoes are right and tight. If not the fact should be communicated to the owner. Also always look under the root of the dock

to see if the crupper has chafed, and make sure all tail hairs are absolutely freed from the crupper. The girths and the cap of the forearm (where the front leg joins into the trunk) should be looked at to see if there are any galls or chafing. If so apply a little gall ointment at once. Gall ointment made according to the B.P. formula acts like magic and is cheaply supplied by any pharmacist; but failing this a teaspoonful of Jeyes' fluid mixed into a tablespoonful of melted vaseline or petroleum jelly will serve.

If a horse comes in very hot or wet, strip and rub down with a wisp of clean wheat straw. Then place a straw band down the chine (along the back-bone from neck to tail) and cover lightly with a horse-cloth. When cooled-off a little, water the horse, but avoid very cold well water. Soft water is best. Always water before feeding. When horses are put on the pillar rein, stalls should be chosen that do not face a window, if the windows happen to be low. As a matter of fact stables should be well lighted, but from high windows and glass lights in the tiles or slates.

Charges vary but as a rule threepence is charged for the stance on the pillar rein. If the head-piece or bridle is removed in order to bait the horse sixpence in the usual charge, while if a feed has to be provided the charge is also not less than sixpence, which with the stance money makes a shilling. The charge for feed is determined by the local price of oats.

On these lines it will be possible to adequately overlook the care and management of horses brought in to bait, but of course where a horse is kept for hiring it is advisable to employ a man who is accustomed to horses, and encourage him to take care of a horse in an intelligent and horsemanlike fashion. By judicious overlooking and by paying attention to trifles as soon as noticed a horse can be kept from falling sick, which is much better than doctoring when ill.

CHAPTER II

THE GARAGE

Motors for Caterers and Hotel Proprietors

THERE is much to be said in favour of the use of motors by those engaged in these two branches of the trade. This was even the case some time back when the motor was a comparatively modern innovation, and its use commercially more or less *terra incognita*, but with light delivery vans, motor-carrier cars, and cycle-cars in their present state of perfection, the motor becomes a serious business proposition. All the same it calls for consideration from two widely divergent points of view, even within the scope of the limited heading of this section, and it will therefore be necessary to deal with each separately.

The Caterer's Motor

All classes of motor vehicle suitable for the conveyance of goods from the five-ton van to the scooter and auto-wheel for the ordinary push-bicycle are advisable and applicable for the caterer according to the size and nature of the business.

It is customary to look to cities for modernity in such details of transport, but it is an utter fallacy for the provincial or country caterer to ignore the possibilities of motors; because, as a point of fact, they are often of the greatest service in country districts, or where a number of outlying suburbs have to be supplied from a more or less isolated provincial town.

Moreover, the caterer's business with its variety of perishable products is one that calls for quick delivery, and it is noteworthy that some of the London caterers were the first to adopt motor vehicles with success, even in the early days.

Broadly speaking, wherever a telegraphic or telephone service exists the caterer should contemplate motor delivery, for the sight of a motor vehicle running in a district often prompts recourse to the 'phone or wire in an emergency; and when once a caterer gains a reputation for being able to supply special needs almost immediately it leads to increased business and brings emergency custom from outlying districts that would otherwise be impracticable.

Telephone orders, without the aid of a light motor delivery service are often more of a nuisance than a blessing and may prove unprofitable. Horseflesh is expensive and cannot be run about anyhow, anywhere, at any time. It must feed and rest, whereas all the feeding a motor wants it can do as it travels (if the fuel tank is kept full), while the less rest a motor gets the better it runs provided the lubrication is efficient and the lubricant good.

Advertising Medium

Of the advertising value of the motor there can be not the slightest doubt. It is a constant and moving advertisement, which not only attracts the stranger or doubtful customer, but is a constant reminder to the regular customer, in that its frequent passing so impresses itself on the memory of the customer that it almost unconsciously brings the firm's name to mind in the advent of unexpected guests or kindred contingencies.

By thus constantly and insistently bearing witness to facilities for rapid transit, patronage is often influenced when catering for garden parties, routs, dances, and weddings is required ; while in country districts the ability to more or less annihilate space and time by a motor service as well as eliminate the trouble of stabling accommodation and its attendant complexities not infrequently turns the balance in favour of having such festivities. All of which is good business, while the motor vehicle prosecutes its advertising programme even on the job in hand.

Two striking instances of the great possibilities that lie in the motor vehicle as an advertising medium are to be found in the illustrations to this section. It pays to spend a little extra money on the body work and lettering of a vehicle that can cover 120 miles a day compared with the limited circuit of the horse-van, and the effect produced by the fruiterer's van in the illustration is undoubtedly convincing. The adornment of the back doors and sides with moulded or even painted panels is an excellent idea capable of considerable extension in various ways by the caterer. It should also be noticed that when necessary a season's speciality notice board can be carried on the sides over the words "fruiterer and florist" without in the least impairing the general appearance or utility of the van, either as regards the prominence of the name, the trade, or the address and 'phone number ; while when not wanted the van is not disfigured by a wasted empty space as would be the case if a special panel were provided.

For those quite inexperienced in motors or motor driving the roller-contact vehicle on the lines of the Wickham vehicle shown in the illustration can be specially recommended. They are light horse-power vans with seventy cubic feet of space available for goods and capable of carrying a load of from five to six hundred weight, but owing to the system of transmitting the power from the engine to the driving-wheels by roller contact instead of a clutch and gear box, driving at all speeds and on the reverse is simplicity itself. There are no gears to change and no clutching tricks to learn. It is possible to run through from five to fifteen miles an hour by simply moving the speed lever forward. One great advantage of this is that no skilled labour is needed for driving. A youth who can steer can manage one of these vehicles as they are absolutely foolproof. There can be no stripping of gears through bad changing. Vans of this type have done and are doing excellent work in hilly districts without loss of power by slipping or noisy gears.

As an example for the general caterer the A.B.C. type is worth noting.

It is bold, effective and emphasises the trade mark, while the almost complete suppression of the address is permissible in the case of a well-known general caterer. In any case London or the name of a branch town would be sufficient over the words "world renowned." Another good feature is the name board on the front of the roof rack, as it commands the eye of all those travelling on buses or trams more effectively than the side panels, which appeal more to pedestrians, or window occupants in the household.

Cycle cars of the Auto-carrier type or the Girling are very suitable for the caterer and pastrycook. In this class of light motors there are some 30 suitable types from which to select, all of which offer up-to-date models. In choosing a vehicle consideration should always be given to the advertising possibilities of the body and the position of the driver; and where the mechanical efficiency is equal the suitability of the body and its prominence as an advertisement should determine the choice in the case of a trade vehicle.

Another form of cycle car which lends itself well to the needs of the caterer is the ordinary motor bicycle, with a side-car attachment of the canoe pattern, and a removable seat. Vehicles of this kind can do good service for restaurateurs and outdoor caterers in many counties, and have the advantage of being employed for other than business purposes by replacing the seat and removing the name boards. On reflection it would appear that this idea is particularly suited to the smaller class of business, as it enables the motor to be used for travelling or private purposes and yet be capable of doing good work in the week by covering a number of journeys, even though these may be shortened somewhat by the rather limited carrying capacity. From an advertising point of view, moreover, they are valuable, and cover a lot of ground with the lighter class of goods such as fancy bread, pastries and confectionery which need quick delivery.

Motor Mems and Running Costs

There are now several kinds of the heavier forms of motor spirit specially suited for commercial vehicles as they enable a greater ton-mileage to be run per gallon, but care should be taken to select a fuel well suited to the type of vehicle used, and the makers should be requested to prove suitable carburettor adjustment according to the fuel, type of engine, and cooling system. Lubrication is another point that demands special attention at the outset, and it is as well to arrange with the makers and pay a little extra to have the latest and best appliances fitted. It is a fatuous policy to save a few shillings at the outset and run the risk of hot bearings when it is possible to so fit a motor that many miles can be run with a commercial vehicle at a cost of sixpence for lubricant grease. There is also the saving of time and wages to be considered when a fitting can be obtained that only needs adjustment once a month, while in some cases where only light duty is demanded from a bearing attention need only be given once in six months. A little forethought

and outlay upon such details at the outset go a long way to ensuring success and the profitable working of a motor vehicle, in which connection it is now almost possible to command success, whereas with the best of corn and cattle and attention, it is seldom possible to even guarantee efficiency with horses. Furthermore, there is as yet no society for the prevention of cruelty to motors, whereas with animals, despite the best intentions and precautions, there is an ever-present risk of police court proceedings (against which there is no insurance) for an unexpected sore shoulder, or sudden lameness through a picked stone, which, even should the vigilance of the police be by good fortune escaped, means several days' inefficiency, with the additional cost of food, keep and curatives.

It has been calculated on fairly sound data that a horse and cart cannot do much more than twenty-five miles a day week in and week out, and in a day thirty calls can be made, which will cost about $1\frac{3}{4}$ d. each exclusive of interest on capital, rent, shoeing or depreciation. Now a light motor-van can do 120 miles a day, but allowing an average speed of only fifteen miles per hour and deducting the time spent in making each call (four minutes per call) at least seventy-five miles per day can be accomplished and in the working day seventy calls made at a cost of something about $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per call.

Actual working conditions have shown that a light van carrying six or seven hundredweight can be run at a cost of $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per mile including lubricant, motor spirit, interest, insurance, tyres, repairs and depreciation; and certainly at 3d. to $3\frac{3}{4}$ d. per mile even at "war" prices, with roads and weather bad. Also it must be borne in mind that hay, corn, and straw are all advancing in price and are likely to keep dear for a long time to come, whereas the proportionate advance in the prices of motor spirit or lubricants is not likely to be maintained. The housing of a motor is also a very simple and inexpensive matter compared with stabling, ostlering, and coach-house expenses. It may be argued that these charges are offset by the cost of a garage and the equipment necessary for effecting repairs, but just as one does not need a wheelwright and blacksmith's shop in every stable yard, neither is there need for full garage accommodation for every motor. Nowadays a portable elevator takes the place of an inspection pit, concerning which more will be found under "Stables and Garages."

The Hotel Motor

The chief need of hostelrys as far as motors are concerned is for station and luggage work in districts remote from the railway and for touring purposes. Hiring is another matter, as the livery stables have still many advantages in fairly populous areas. It is doubtful if in towns the motor can be recommended in place of the familiar station bus, but whenever it is contemplated it should be of a type suitable for pleasure or sight-seeing work over the week-ends. An idea of a suitable body can be gathered from the illustration of motors, though the size shown has a rather bigger body than would be required for hotel work, and a detach-

able luggage rail should be fitted on the roof. If the windows either slide or are removable this style is more serviceable than the semi-char-a-banc type of body, and it is quite possible to arrange for a removable top, which enables the vehicle to be converted into an open brake for week-end touring in the summer.

As regards the hiring of small cars for individual service it is usually best to work in co-operation with a motor garage in towns, as otherwise one of two undesirable conditions will probably arise. Either the service offered will be inadequate, which causes disappointment and is therefore to be avoided, or a large amount of capital will be locked up and lying idle for months in the year, which is equally prejudicial to the proprietor's welfare. Of course there are exceptions owing to local conditions, as an instance of which the following case will serve as a guide to determining on a motor *vice* the horse-bus or as supplemental to the livery stable accommodation.

A railway hotel often adjoins a station which serves two or three towns in the surrounding neighbourhood either entirely without or else very remote from a station. A station also sometimes serves an important agricultural area in which extensive estates and large farms are situate. This means that several commercial travellers have to work the towns or area periodically. They want conveyances, and with one or two horses it is often impossible to meet the requirements of all at once, yet the horses have been standing almost idle awaiting their coming and if the custom is lost will have to stand eating their heads off until the next visit comes round. Now a motor could meet one train and run a traveller out to a town five miles off and be back to meet another train in half an hour; it could work another passenger to another town four miles off and return to pick up another traveller and also run him to the five-mile town, all inside two hours, and yet keep well within the speed-limit fixed by law, which it is never advisable to exceed on any hiring work. This would allow him to pick up a farmers' traveller about noon and put him round two or three estates and back to the hotel (where the traveller will probably be staying over the night to visit other outlying estates) in time to set off and fetch the town travellers back to the hotel in good time for the afternoon up or down fast train.

At a charge based upon sixpence a mile only for the actual distance travelled by the commercials, and putting the motor-running costs at three pence per mile, there would be a profit of four shillings on the day's work (apart from the hotel-bar takings) after allowing for the mileage the motor ran empty. As a matter of fact, however, the usual charge per mile is nearer double, or more, so that allowing for wide variations in running costs there should be an even more substantial profit (see "Motor Mems and Running Costs"). It is evident that in such cases a motor coupé or landalette pays, especially as when not wanted it costs nothing save the unearned interest on capital, and putting that at £15 per year (a liberal allowance), the keep of an idle horse would come to nearer £20 providing it keeps "fit."

It is obvious that there are many cases on all fours with this example, although the details might be quite different, but the way the costs and takings are estimated will serve equally well to determine the advisability of owning a motor for hiring purposes.

Stables and Garages

The restaurateur and hotel keeper whether large or small must in the present day consider the question of providing accommodation for the users of the roads, no matter what class of conveyance they may fancy. Even the caterer and eating-house keeper in country towns will do well to provide accommodation for bicycles and motor-cycles, as in all these cases the provision of suitable conveniences for safely storing cycles, free of charge, and even supplying lubricant and lighting oils or carbide will prove an excellent business bringer, which does not entail much outlay or trouble yet attracts and attaches custom in a most desirable way. It is not a very difficult undertaking to master the simple process of harnessing and putting to or "locking" a horse. In fact the actual harnessing is seldom required, as when people put up they often only want the horse taking out and standing on the pillar rein; that is to say, with the tail to the manger and a dog chain snapped on to the bit on each side, which chains are attached to the pillars at the end of the stall. It is important, however, that the proprietor should have mastered these elementary details and not have to trust to a lad entirely, even though he may be a fairly good horseman. An instance of how the want of the most simple acquaintance in such matters can drive custom away is given under the heading of "Stables." Just as some knowledge of harnessing is essential to inspire confidence so is it also imperative that motor owners should be assured that cars and cycles are under lock and key, or at any rate safe from interference from outsiders or uncontrolled curiosity. A little meddling can do a lot of harm, but it is not so very difficult to guard against this.

As trade and social conditions are to-day it is incontestably desirable to provide both kinds of accommodation, and for large yards it is possible to procure the services of a coachman-chauffeur for market days, etc., at a reasonable figure. It is as well to avoid the stableman-cleaner type of man, because there is seldom much cleaning wanted and very little actual stable work. Moreover, men of this class are often privately prejudiced against motors, though they may not own to it openly. The main thing is to secure the services of a willing, intelligent, and thoroughly honest and straightforward man who can be trusted to be as dependable in looking after the interests of his employer as he is willing to be equally courteous and obliging to all classes of patrons.

General Management

Whatever the class of accommodation decided on may be, it is essential to ensure a reasonable amount of privacy not only as regards actual storage for rugs, coats, whips, etc., but also in the matter of frequenters,

such as tradesmen's boys and others who will come to deliver parcels for those who are putting up. There should be some definite and clearly defined rules for the conduct of the yard or storage-place. It should not be possible for townspeople to enter the yard and place parcels on individual carts, etc. The man in charge or a youth should be held responsible for all parcels taken in. If this cannot be done it should be a rule that no parcels are to be taken into the yard, but must be delivered at the house or shop. In either case it is easy to organise a suitable system, as will be explained, and a notice should be posted on the yard gates to this effect, and also a disclaimer of responsibility for any goods not signed for by the person delivering.

In this way misunderstandings with the local tradespeople are avoided and the convenience of patrons definitely ensured. The importance of this may seem obscure to those who have had some experience, but it is the aim of the beginner to go one better than predecessors and the most experienced should always desire to aim at perfection in service. Even with the most capable yardman mistakes will occur and the inconvenience caused by an oversight on the part of the patron, apart from the yardman, can cause serious disappointment in country districts, through a mislaid or overlooked parcel, or a forgotten item. Not only is it anything but consoling to have to drive the next day ten miles or so to fetch a parcel that did not get on the cart, or had not been delivered, (and many cases of most unfortunate misunderstandings could be cited where this has occurred through the mere verbal asking of a simple question to which a perfectly true answer had been given by the yardman), but in the case of a forgotten item it is often impossible to remedy the oversight for a week or more. It is therefore not only most important from a business point of view to effectually guard against such occurrences, but it can easily be done by ruling up a sheet or two of foolscap paper in the way shown here and fastening them to a stout sheet of cardboard with a bulldog clip. One sheet of foolscap will serve for eighteen to twenty customers, and fifty sheets would last a year. With the aid of a gelatine manifold one hundred forms complete with column headings and customers' names and addresses could be prepared in an hour or two. In this way a patron can be told at once, or shown, exactly what purchases have been sent in and by whom; the hosteller is placed in a secure and satisfactory position between both tradespeople and customers, while the responsibility for forgetfulness is rightly placed to the complete exoneration of the host, as, if he wishes, the customer can, after seeing the list, put his initials across the entries. Lastly, it is a check equally fair to the yardman and his employer upon the yard takings, as each customer's entry should be marked "paid" on his leaving the yard. When the yard management and the takings are let to a yardman it is even more important that some such schedule should be kept in order to protect the proprietor's reputation for good management and reliability. A similar sheet or slate showing the times, journeys, and bookings for the car should also be kept in some convenient place.

CATERING MANAGEMENT

EXAMPLE OF YARD AND PARCEL SCHEDULE

| GREEN BUSH HOTEL, BLANKMERE. | | | Saturday..... | Date..... |
|------------------------------|------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------|--------------------|
| MR. BROWN, COLTON | | | MR. GREEN | MR. BROWN, BINGHAM |
| GOODS | FROM | D/D BY | | |
| <i>Pel.</i> | <i>Barnard's</i> | <i>Initials of man delivering</i> | | |
| <i>Bag</i> | <i>Baxter's</i> | | | |
| <i>Sacks</i> | <i>Baxter's</i> | | | |
| <i>Rake</i> | <i>Baxter's</i> | | | |
| MR. GREY, NORTON B. | | | | |
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Garages

The word garage has come to be popularly associated with a motor depot and quasi-engineering works. Of course large garages are so equipped, but the term can be applied with equal correctness to a place fitted for the storage, cleaning and recharging of motors, and such should be the limitations of the garage accommodation provided by the caterer or hosteller. In short, he should aim at providing a garage and not a repairing shop.

The motor-house itself should be thoroughly water-tight and weather-proof. While it must be dry and warm, overheating should be avoided. Both a high dry temperature and excessive cold are bad, having an injurious effect on the rubber tyres, and in the latter case also on the

lubricating system. Some method for artificial heating is necessary. Stoves and open fireplaces are to be deprecated, for they give too dry a heat as well as being dangerous. Hot-water pipes with radiators generally prove satisfactory, as this system is at once inexpensive and easy to control. For heating the boiler either an enclosed stove which will burn coke and refuse may be used, or better still a gas-stove. A compact gas heater and boiler, such as is often employed for heating halls and corridors, conservatories, coach-houses, etc., is made in various sizes. A small one, as shown in our illustration of a country-inn garage, will cost normally about £1 12s. It is in many ways an advantage to have two or more of these gas-heated boilers, arranged in batteries, rather than one big boiler, because this facilitates regulation of heat without waste. The boiler and stove are naturally to be fixed outside the garage or coach-house. Airing racks must be provided for drying rugs, etc. The place should be as well lighted as possible.

Turn-Table Motor-House

A clever contrivance has been introduced in America for places having much restricted outdoor space. In such situations, turning round being difficult, it is not advisable for motor-cars to be backed out of or into the house. To overcome the difficulty the house, of wood or armoured concrete, is built on a platform, revolving on roller or ball-bearings within a shallow brick or concrete pit. The house is provided with doors back and front, so the car can be driven in, the doors closed, when with a very little exertion the house and its load can be turned round, the car thus being instantly brought into the right position for driving out. This adds somewhat to the cost of the building, but not to such an extent as to prevent its coming into considerable vogue in towns and fashionable suburbs.

Equipment

We have said that in ordinary cases the caterer should aim at running a garage rather than a repairing shop. Exceptionally large hotels find it remunerative to have extensive, expensively equipped garages, on some such lines as those laid down by the Royal Automobile Club. But that is not wise for the generality. Reasonable housing and cleaning is what the majority should offer. On the other hand, in isolated areas it may pay well to stock certain spare parts frequently needed, standard tyres, lamp fittings and the like, but generally speaking it will be better to leave these things alone.

The equipment of course may include a working bench and vice, and possibly some form of drilling appliance, but the motorist usually has his own kit of tools with him. If the repairs are of a serious nature it is best to work in co-operation with a genuine motor-engineer, preferably one holding an appointment as repairer to the Royal Automobile Club, and as the charges nowadays may not leave much room for any commission on business introduced, still, if worked truly on co-operative lines the fact

of being able to introduce repairing jobs should be mutually responded to by passing on customers to the place of refreshment when they come first-hand to the motor repairer's. This will make the time taken over a job seem shorter, and certainly less irksome, and in this way all parties concerned will benefit ; while the co-operators will probably gain sufficient reward by securing fairly regular patrons by the original interchange of customers.

In the matter of garages also an inspection pit is usually looked for, but not only may it be costly to construct but in many cases it is quite conceivable that its construction is quite impossible, either owing to local conditions or to landlord's restrictions.

This, however, is an item in the equipment that can readily be overcome by the purchase of one or two of the portable motor-car elevators that are on the market. Not only will they probably cost less than the construction of an inspection pit, but they have the additional and vast advantage of being tenant's fixtures and so can be taken away should a change to larger premises become desirable. The pit is so much capital sunk beyond recovery, whereas the elevator is portable and a realisable asset. Not only are they useful for raising the car so as to get underneath easily for adjustments, but they are of great use in loading up cars for transit by rail. With one of these elevators almost any shed or lean-to will serve as a garage. One of the best types is so constructed as to receive any size or weight of motor-car, that can be drawn up on the elevator by the two wire ropes which hook on to the back axle and pass round two geared drums at the forepart of the elevator framework ; the drums being operated by a long handle controlled by a pawl and ratchet. The wheels of the car are received in two steel channels, and when raised far enough on to the sloping channel-rails the wheels are fastened by four stout buckled straps, so that there is no fear of a run back should anything interfere with the ratchets or pawls on the drums. What is more, the elevator frame is fitted with a strong extension screw which enables the wheel channels to be widened so as to suit cars of different size and width of track. The elevator is mounted on two central iron wheels and also two strong castor wheels at the lower ends of the channel irons, so that the raised car can easily be moved turn-table fashion into any desired position or advantageous light for inspection of the underworks. Minor repairs and adjustments can thus be quite easily and more expeditiously executed than in a pit. When not wanted the elevators can be hung up out of the way on a side wall and so take up very little room when not in use. Another useful feature is that these elevators can be taken to a disabled car to bring it to the repair shop ; or minor repairs can be made on the spot, which is virtually bringing the pit to the car instead of having to haul the car to the pit.

Another most important adjunct for the small garage is a lifting-jack on wheels. A screw-jack is mounted on an axle carrying a pair of small rubber-shod wheels, with a long handle of the bath-chair type to control the frame. By tilting the jack forward, slipping it under

the front axle of a car and then lowering the long handle, the car wheels are slightly raised off the ground, when, owing to the swivel action of the screw-jack pillar, a car can be moved with the greatest of ease and manœuvred into desired position in the most confined space without any manipulation of the steering wheel or pushing. The claw of the jack pillar should not be more than two inches higher than the front axle before starting to place in position. This ensures a quick lift and short locking.

Such appliances will only be required when motor-cars are taken in; much simpler accommodation will suffice for motor-cycles or cycle-cars. Of course the plain garage will only apply to those hotels which do not aim at aspiring to the approved list of the Royal Automobile Club, because much more equipment in the garages is insisted upon. Still, all the approved hotels on these lists cannot cater for more than a certain percentage of the hundreds of motorists now using Great Britain's highways, and such accommodation as has been outlined will generally prove acceptable to a large section of this numerous and increasing class.

Seeing that the appointment of garages is determined by the Royal Automobile Club on much the same lines as those laid down for hotels, it is self-evident that no hard and fast standard or specification is made known for the guidance of those desiring appointment, because merit according to the local conditions and requirements is the main determining factor. In much the same way the Automobile Association and Motor Union have a very extensive list of garages and repairers appointed upon the recommendation of members and local motorists, after an inspection of the premises has been made by the A.A. and M.U. authorities. The handbook issued to members contains full particulars of the abilities of these numerous garages and repairing shops, which makes it desirable for those who afford good accommodation as an adjunct to their catering and boarding business *per se* to be included therein. The particulars cover details of the garage conveniences or repairing facilities, whether open at night and on Sundays, and also such necessary data as full postal and telegraphic addresses and telephone numbers. Also special information concerning the supply of tyres, etc., is included for the convenience of motor-cyclists. One great advantage of being in this list is due to the Association affixing the club sign to the premises, which signification is supplemented by a special lamp for night garages, thus enabling these approved premises to be differentiated from those unadapted, either by day or night.

The *Auto* also have a list of selected garages, the essential distinction conferred being that this list is revised almost weekly by the advices received from actual users, which if commendatory enhance the reputation of the garage; while if persistently otherwise, lead to an elimination of the undesirables. The information afforded indicates whether someone is on the premises all night; if a mechanic is in attendance on Sundays; also if the mechanics are under the control of a certified repairer and whether the garage holds an appointment under the ægis of the National Society of Chauffeurs. Lastly, this list has the merit of being compiled

mainly for convenience of week-end tourists who are naturally of particular interest to the catering world.

Hints on Location.—The pros and cons of providing garaging facilities will in the majority of cases depend upon the *locale* of the caterer or hostelry, especially in the counties abutting on the metropolis. More provincial situations will have to be guided by sight-seeing attractions. These, however, are more obvious locations than mere roads or main lines of traffic, and therefore the following information concerning the main routes out of London should prove helpful and suggestive to those contemplating developments or about to open premises. South of the Thames there is the Portsmouth road through Wandsworth, Hammersmith Bridge, Putney Bridge, out through Wimbledon Common ; and the Vauxhall Bridge Road with its sub-outlets through Peckham, Lewisham, Sydenham, and Streatham for the Brighton road.

North of the Thames there are five main routes going West, North, and East, namely:—The Uxbridge-Windsor road through Acton ; the Bath road through Fulham, Hammersmith, and Chiswick ; the Edgware Road through Willesden and Cricklewood ; the New North Road through Highgate ; the Finchley North Road through Golder's Green and Church End ; and lastly the Whitechapel Road through Bow and Romford which leads to the Eastern Counties and the familiar watering-places on the East Coast from Cromer to Yarmouth, via Colchester and Ipswich, or Cambridge and Ely.

Lastly, a word in confirmation of the coachman-chauffeur in charge, *vice* the stableman-cleaner type. With the former you always have a spare driver, used to either horses or motors, which is often a great convenience to patrons.

CHAPTER III

PRACTICAL HINTS ON DRIVING, TYRES, AND MILEAGE

JUST as even a book knowledge of horse and stable management is of service to proprietors in procuring efficiency, so also is some acquaintance with the underlying principles of good motor driving ; the expectations of the life of tyres ; and the miles per gallon obtainable from a gallon of motor spirit, of service to the hirer or owner of a motor vehicle, even though he may not actually drive personally. This is typified by the case of an ex-chauffeur hotel keeper who worked with a motor agent having a hiring department. His past experience assured his trustworthiness with motors, and for a reasonable standing charge to cover wear and tear and depreciation he was able to procure the use of three vehicles suitable for summer or winter station and touring work, on the condition that he found his own fuel, lubricants, and tyres, and paid for all running repairs. He therefore announced a motor service, and by good driving and his practical knowledge of how to achieve the maximum mileage per gallon of fuel made more money out of hiring (without sinking capital in vehicles) than the motor agent made out of his hiring department with the smart young drivers he had in his employ.

Fuel Economies

The possession of some knowledge of these matters is valuable in two ways. In the first place the mere owner is able to overlook the proficiency of his driver, and detect carelessness or the abuse of brakes, as by keeping a record of his milometer readings and watching his tyre and fuel bills he can without undue intrusiveness ascertain if the driving of his car comes within the bounds of anything like first-class driving ability. In the second place, when the owner occasionally drives himself, but has to employ a chauffeur-coachman or his equivalent for everyday work, he is able quite unobtrusively to compare his own results with those of his employee and ascertain whether adequate efficiency is being obtained out of his machine.

To be fair to his driver in this matter he must draw his comparisons from the same vehicle on the same roads, with the same fuel, tyres, and weather conditions. Furthermore, he must bear in mind that cars simply equipped as regards accessories, and of the same age, size, and weight, and even of the same make, may vary as much as twenty per cent. in the mileage per gallon of fuel, and in order to determine the exact condition of his own vehicle he must make himself acquainted with the fitting of his air, fuel, and exhaust passages, the compression, the timing of the

ignition, and the efficiency and perfect alignment of the transmission. If for instance the petrol pipe is not connected to the flange on the supply tank so as to ensure a full bore the passage is restricted, and these little things all go to make up inefficiency. Especially so is this the case with the exhaust piping. Also frequent grinding-in of valves leads to the mushroom head of the valve becoming recessed into the valve seating on the cylinder, so that when raised by the action of the cam shaft, proper clearance is not obtained. Again, there is a tendency for the cam to channel or flatten the tappet on the end of the valve-spindle so that the lift is not perfectly vertical to the valve stem. It is important, therefore, to keep the ends of the tappet smooth, and if of the mushroom type of accurate curvature so that the bearing of the tappet is exactly over the centre of the cam lift. If this is not so the setting of the valve on its seat and the clearance will vary with the angularity of the tappet to the cam, and the consequent angular direction given to the lift of the valve stem, which again means restricted passages, and which have been stated to be inimical to economical working.

Even when these points have been attended to it will be necessary to check the accuracy of the valve timing and see that it still conforms to the conditions laid down by the makers of the engine when first adjusting the engine so as to attain maximum efficiency.

An appreciation of these mechanical points is necessary to avoid a misunderstanding with a well-trained driver, but having awakened the lay mind to the consideration of such arguments and conceivable causes of defective running, it may be stated that in the opinion of most capable judges discrepancies in the mileage per gallon of fuel depend more upon the way in which the car is driven than upon differences in mere design and manufacture. Carelessness in engine cleaning, and faulty carburation through laxity in attention to the carburettor, do more to cause valve troubles than a lot of ordinary wear and tear; and in the same way reckless driving leads to hasty repairs, which result in badly made pipe-joints and restricted passages in feed and exhaust piping. "Faults and How to Find Them" will prove a very useful book for the novice. It is by T. S. V. Bickford, B.A.

Dashing driving and excessive speed need the maximum of engine power and flexibility, but first and last the principal aim of the hiring-owner is regular everyday work and *economy*.

Now, although economy, power, and flexibility can all be obtained from modern cars in reasonably good going order, it is an indisputable fact that if the maximum results in any one of these three attributes is to be attained some sacrifice of the other two must be made; and as no sensible hiring-owner wants to sacrifice one iota of possible economy, he must make some concession in the matter of flexibility and power. The truth of this will be made clear, and substantiated up to the hilt, when this well-established dictum is fully comprehended, namely, that to obtain the greatest economy in fuel consumption a somewhat weaker gaseous mixture is required in the cylinder head than that which yields the highest

engine power. You may not rush hills without changing gear, or quite so smoothly annihilate long gradients, but the first aim of the business motor-driver is economy, and yet again—economy. And there is nothing derogatory in the aim, for after all the too frequent use of power and flexibility to cover hills at the expense of fuel is not good driving but lazy driving, for it is the misuse of a means, just as much as the kicking open of a door instead of bending to use the handle. (See “Good Driving.”) It is not the cleanliness of the bonnet but what is underneath that counts.

Tyre Mileage and Costs

It would be invidious to make any specific suggestions as to the selection of tyres. There are plenty of good makes and only experience can show the suitability of studded, grooved or patent treaded tyres for different kinds of work in various localities. There is no doubt but what considerable prejudice exists for or against certain makes of tyre, and trade jealousies have caused many peculiar statements to be circulated, but an inquiry into the facts adduced in favour of any particular make will soon reveal the reliability or otherwise of the claims made, provided a few questions of the touchstone type are applied in each case. The abolition of the mileage guarantee by a considerable number of well-reputed tyre makers who prefer to stand by the rock-bottom test of actual and everyday service has done much to simplify the tyre question, while the standardising of types, which is growing, tends to curtail doubtful selling tactics. As guides to the touchstone question methods of investigation the following suggestions will serve to indicate the principles of the method.

In the first place if the old and standardised makers are “down” on new competitors in the field of tyre records, it is as well to seek the fullest information about those competitors’ achievements and compare the running costs with the figures others advance in support of their own makes.

Don’t accept isolated instances. Insist upon average results. For example one class of tyre which may be called “A” could show a running cost as low as 0.29d. per mile, but if an average of, say, seven tests is taken the figure rises to over 0.38d. per mile. Some idea of the variable results given by such tyres in actual use is afforded by the following figures:—Test (1) 2,872 miles run at a cost of 0.39d. (2) 2,994 miles at 0.37d. each. (3) 2,761 miles at 0.4d. (4) 3,571 at 0.31d. (5) 3,007 at 0.45d. (6) 2,321 at 0.48d. and (7) 3,819 at 0.29d. per mile. Of course the salesman will try to trade on the last figure, but the average shows that the first two are the only reliable guides to current efficiency with that particular make. Some idea of how widely tyre tests can vary is shown by the following achieved on actual car duty. Tyre “B” cost 0.34d. per mile in one case and 0.52d. in another, which is not very reassuring. The chances are it would be better to trust to tyre “C,” for instance, which gave in two tests 0.44d. and 0.48d. per mile.

When data as to running costs are put forward always ascertain: (1) What make of car the tests were made on, and its horse-power. (2) On

what roads the tests were made, or if on a track. (3) Are the figures obtained solely on *rear* wheel mileages. (4) What was the size of the tyres used (760 by 90 is the usual size) and were they the stock standard make, or specially shod. (5) Also the selling price of the *exact replica* of the actual tyre tested.

In this way it is fairly easy to sift out the artifices of the salesman and arrive at reasonably reliable deductions about the special suitability of any particular make for individual requirements.

As an indication of authenticated achievements with All-British tyres it may be stated that the running cost has been brought down to less than fifteen shillings per thousand miles, the actual cost per mile being 0.17d. But this standard is subject to the variations of rubber prices and hence the cost of tyres.

Finally all those who intend to tackle motor-hiring solely and wholly as a business proposition should turn a deaf ear to the blandishments and warnings of tyre salesmen, and make a careful investigation of the possibilities of the Lynton wheels. They ride as easy as a pneumatic but are absolutely puncture proof and never need any pumping up. They are only advisable for the rear or driving wheels.

Gear Changing—How and When

It will have been gathered from the foregoing that where economy in running is aimed at there will be greater necessity for changing the speed-gearing than when trusting to full power and unstinted fuel consumption. For the absolute novice some of the roller-contact or gearless drives are recommended in fairly level counties, but in the hilly west and south-west gears are often preferable, and as much expense can be incurred through carelessness or ignorance in changing gear, some insight into the principles of gear changing is worth acquiring, even if it looks very "technical" at the first glance. For example, the existence of a three-speed gear with a direct drive on the top gear and meshed in on the lowest or first gear will be assumed. In coming up to the next highest or second-speed gear, the speed of the gear-wheel on the lay or counter-shaft connected to the road driving-wheels will obviously be greater at its periphery (or outside rim) than the smaller wheel at present meshed with the engine main shaft for the lower speed, so that to slip the wheel on the main or engine shaft into the lay-shaft second-speed wheel (without "grinding" the teeth) the speed of the lay-shaft must be slackened. *Vice versa* when changing down; the speed of the lay-shaft will need to be increased so that the gear-wheels may be intermeshed quietly. Bearing this in mind it will be quite easy to grasp the why and wherefore of the following hints on *how* to change gear.

Changing Up

Accelerate the engine a little. Withdraw the clutch and slightly close the engine throttle-valve to guard against further acceleration

of the engine but not enough to reduce it. Then slide the gear-wheels out of mesh only. Master this detail by clutching and declutching till proficient. It will be evident that this procedure enables the speed of the lay-shaft to be reduced owing to the resistance of the lubricant with which the gear-box is filled. Now "feel" for the mesh by pushing the gear lever towards the second speed "gate" and the gears will slip in quietly. Then let the clutch in again fairly briskly and open the engine throttle.

Changing Down

Call to mind that the underlying principle already laid down is the acceleration of the lay-shaft. Leave the throttle-valve entirely alone. First fully withdraw the clutch and *unmesh* the gear-wheels. Now let in the clutch for a moment (to "flirt" up the speed of the lay-shaft), and again declutch. Slip the change lever into the slide of the lower speed and "feel" for the mesh till the lever slips into the "gate" properly. Then at once let in the clutch again.

Within reason these operations should be carried out as evenly and quickly as possible, and bear in mind in changing *up* to avoid doing so too early. In changing *down* don't leave it too late or you may have to go through into an even lower gear as the engine can't pick up, and that wastes fuel.

Having mastered the technique of the actual process of gear-changing there now arises the all-important question of *when* to change gear. Theoretically the right time is when the driver *thinks* the engine revolution speed is going to slow down, that is to say, just *before* the engine begins to flag or labour under an increased load due to bad surface or a hill. This is why a slight mystery is made of speed changing by some chauffeurs who are inclined to preach that it can only come by intuition, training, and long experience. This is quite true as long as the time for changing gear is left to *thinking* the engine is going to slow down. But a study of charted curves, indicating variable loads, the rise and fall of engine torque, and the speeds of cars at the maximum torque, has proved it possible to arrive at data for each car that will enable the driver to *know* when to change. Without going into all these technicalities it will suffice for the novice to understand that the engine torque at any particular speed practically represents the actual force that the engine can apply to the road wheels for the propulsion of the vehicle. Now if the driver knows the *speed* at which the engine gives its maximum torque on any one gear, he also *knows* that the moment the engine begins to slow down at that speed owing to a hill or other cause of increased resistance it is time to change to a lower gear. These speeds of maximum torque can almost always be obtained from the maker of the vehicle, but failing that, reference to the catalogue will show what are the normal *engine* speeds on each gear, and these may be taken as sufficiently accurate substitutes for the actual maximum torque speeds.

Now whether the novice has the advantage of lessons from an expert

driver or not, he will be well advised to have these speeds marked by arrow heads on the dial of his speedometer. He will then *know* when to be on the alert for changing gears. And do so early enough. Never let the engine actually labour. Likewise, when the engine "picks up" on the level he will clearly see when to change up into the higher gear, but don't do it too soon.

How to Drive Well

If you wish to emulate some of the smartest motor agency "car demonstration" drivers, do so and don't read the following. If you wish to drive your own car well study them and lay them to heart. From the foregoing it is evident that quiet and smooth gear-changing is a fundamental principle. Apply it till practice makes perfect. Accelerate the engine evenly. To do this with certainty conduces to tyre economy and facilitates perfect gear-changing. Apply the brakes as little and as gently as possible. To achieve this keep a far-ahead look out and slow down to obstacles or traffic. Take corners slowly always and more particularly do so when about to turn to the right. Always look for a clear road ; and therefore never overtake any vehicle near or at a corner. If it is necessary to slow down on a gradient, after having changed gear to climb it, don't slip the clutch and race the engine to keep up power ; change down into the next lower gear and thereby be sure of passing your obstacle and finishing your gradient quietly and running smoothly. Never let the engine flag—change gear. Don't let it race—change gear.

Things to Avoid and Avoidable

Don't depend so constantly on the more convenient foot-brake that you fail to become facile with the hand-brake. Cultivate the use of both so that in an emergency the two may be applied almost automatically without impairing your control of the steering. Don't jam on the brakes to slew or skid round a corner. Slow down so that you can "drive" round it. Don't shave or hamper pedestrians on the road, give them a wide berth. It is easier for you to give way to them than for them to get out of your way. Don't "hang on" to another motor. Give it road room and don't overtake unless you are sure of showing a clean pair of heels.

Points to Watch

Spare no trouble to ensure continuous and thorough lubrication ; it is almost as important as keeping the petrol tank well supplied with perfectly filtered fuel. Use a gauze fine enough to arrest any water that may chance to get into the fuel. It should not be present, but nevertheless it very often is. It may take a little longer to replenish the supply tank, but it will prevent endless trouble. Once get just a little water into the supply tank and you are in for a spell of persistent and "mysterious" engine trouble. Look to the grease-cup lubricators as well as the liquid lubricant system. Test the gap of sparking plugs every few weeks to make sure you get a spark "fat" enough to suit your explosive

mixtures. Let the attention to lubrication extend to the oiling between the leaves of the springs. Keep the hub caps filled with grease, not forgetting the front wheels.

Lastly, if your car or cars are to be effective, if they are to call attention to your service, they must reflect in their appearance the quality of your service, they must be kept spick and span. All the care and attention to details of your service within the establishment—spotless linen, perfect table equipment, harmonious and comfortable furnishings—all the features that you may have striven to excel in and that you may even have achieved, must be no less a distinguishing quality in their outside aspect of the establishment, in the car or cars employed in the service. Neglect of the essential requirement of thorough and painstaking grooming of the car will just as assuredly suggest equal neglect in the interior arrangements of the organisation, while the converse will just as assuredly indicate the excellence of that service and become all the more effective as a medium for advertising that excellence.

No small pains should, therefore, be taken to ensure that the car is thoroughly and properly kept clean and bright, not only for the reasons stated, but also because of the importance of maintaining the car at its maximum efficiency and keeping the value of the car as a substantial business asset.

CHAPTER IV

MOTOR, CYCLING, AND TOURING AGENCIES

It will be as well at the very outset to remove any possibility of misunderstanding concerning the applicability of the above-named agencies as adjuncts to the businesses of caterers and hotel proprietors.

In most of the leading hotels in large towns it is customary to find a ticket, touring, and travel bureau, and much legitimate business is conducted in connection therewith, apart from the incidental advantage of making the service offered by the hotel as complete and comprehensive as possible for the convenience of guests staying thereat; but in the general way such an undertaking is not possible in connection with the smaller hostelrys or catering establishments, because before the booking of passages and sale of tickets, etc., can be carried on, substantial guarantees are required by the Board of Trade, or special references, and very often the deposit of £1,000 is necessary. It is not often that the volume of business likely to be done warrants the expenditure of so much money and trouble, and in most cases the bureaux referred to are run as branch offices by some established and well-known tourist agent.

However, entirely independently of this particular restriction, there are many motor, motor-cycle, and cyclists' touring organisations with which it is well for the caterer and hotel proprietor to keep in touch. In the first place they help to bring custom, and give assurance of thoroughly modernised service, while the right to hang out the signs which these agencies supply to approved hotels, coffee and eating-houses, etc., serves as a sound credential. Moreover, many steamship companies offer special advantages to members of such organisations, and attractive literature, framed illustrations, guide books and the like, can be obtained free of charge if the proprietors show that efficient publicity can be given to the same, and there are very few businesses of any pretension to up-to-dateness that cannot guarantee this. The display of such advertising matter is preferable and gives a better tone to premises than a multiplicity of theatre and cinema show bills.

Some idea of the scope there is in connection with such agencies is afforded by the fact that one organisation alone (and that not the most influential) has a membership of 77,000 of whom 52,000 are car owners and the balance cycle-car or motor-cycle users. These organisations mostly operate a patrol service, on which, in one case, as much as £30,000 per annum is expended in wages. It is the duty of these patrols to execute minor roadside repairs and if necessary to cycle to the nearest garage for supplies or assistance. It is obvious that it would be good business to get in touch with patrols and keep them informed of the different classes of catering or accommodation that the district affords for the victims

of a breakdown or belated motorists. If particulars concerning individual organisations are known to be available at places of refreshment, there will naturally be a predisposition to patronise such places in preference to others where they are not to be found.

Lastly, when a place gains a reputation for being in touch with motoring and touring agencies it often leads (in the remoter areas) to a demand for the supply of sundries ; and under such circumstances it will pay to carry a small stock of carbide, lamp oils, lubricants, wicks, chain links and rivets, balls for bearings, tyre levers, tyre-repairing outfits, and sparking plugs. Though no general rule can be laid down it nevertheless is not infrequently possible to arrange for a supply of the more costly accessories, on sale or return, if a reasonable deposit is given and the business cards or advertisements of the nearest repairing shops or big garages are displayed and on occasion called attention to.

Motoring.—The two chief organisations are the Royal Automobile Club, Pall Mall, London, and the A.A. and M.U. (Automobile Association and Motor Union) Fanum House, Whitcomb Street, Coventry Street, London. The former is the premier organisation and has fifty-four associated provincial clubs covering almost every county in England, while there are also Scottish and Irish Automobile Club branches. The utmost vigilance is exercised in the selection of hotels and repairers for the club's official list. An applicant has to fill up certain forms supplied by the club, and also has to specify the names of some members and associates of the club to whom application can be made for personal recommendations as to the suitability of the applicant for appointment. In addition to this the local associated club is also consulted and the collated evidence passed before the Touring Committee. This committee has complete control of all matters of this description and is assisted by skilled knowledge of what is essential and most desirable for the purpose of maintaining the highest attainment of the club's aims and objects. No fee is levied from those who obtain appointments, neither can the question of cost influence the committee's decision as each appointment is granted wholly and solely on merit alone. Appointed hotels are provided with an attractive wall-bracket sign bearing this statement :—R.A.C. Listed Hotel. In their Touring Department this club is the only one entitled to issue Customs papers in its own name and it does so free of charge.

The A.A. and M.U. is also fully alive to the importance of good and comfortable hotel accommodation to motorists and tourists and they have a classified list of every hotel in Great Britain and Ireland. Many hundreds of appointed hotels are classified on a star basis. A five-star hotel is a luxurious and exceptionally comfortable establishment. Hotels with four stars are also rated as being excellent in point of comfort but the charges are usually on a more moderate scale than those in the five-star category. The three-star hotels are calculated to satisfy all reasonable requirements to motorists on the road, while two and one-star hotels are included in the " Appointed list " because although the accommodation

and service is generally more limited and less lavish, still, the proprietors furnish good food, clean bedrooms and adequate lavatory accommodation.

An important point for caterers and others to note is that this association supplies hotels with toilet boxes containing a supply of clean hand-towels and combs and brushes for the sole use of members. These boxes can only be opened with one of the special keys, one of which is supplied to each member after regularly and conditionally joining the association. In their Foreign Touring Department they issue tryptiques which enables members to pass frontiers without difficulty or delay consequent upon depositing duties, and also avoids the formality of weighing and valuing the car upon each occasion. They are also authorised by the Local Government Board to issue International driving certificates and Continental permits which do away with the trouble of obtaining special foreign licences in each country passed through. They also issue an International Customs Booklet which enables the holder to tour in Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Holland, Italy, Sweden, and Switzerland.

In the matter of hotels and garages another list in which it is desirable to obtain inclusion is that published each week in the *Automotor Journal*. The classification denotes three-star as very large and modern hotels. Two-star as recommended for night or week-end. One-star as recommended for lunch or tea. These distinctions are not given on club appointments but strictly on the personal recommendation of visitors. Hotels near to golf links are also marked with a black disc which implies Sunday play with caddies. No charge is made for insertion and nothing in the way of an advertisement can be brought within the list, which is revised according to visitors' recommendations and reports every week. By many it is considered to be the best guide to hotels when touring. Inquiries should be made to the Editor, "Auto" 44, St. Martin's Lane, London.

Cycling.—For all practical purposes the C.T.C. (Cyclists' Touring Club), which is under the patronage of H.M. the King will be found the best organisation for home or abroad. The offices are situate at Bank Buildings, 280, Euston Road, London. The club also caters for motor-cyclists as regards hotel discounts, steamship company concessions, and insurance.

This club has district branches with headquarters in Birmingham, Bristol, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Leeds, Leicester, Liverpool, Manchester, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Nottingham, Preston, Sheffield, and Southampton.

The Touring Bureau affords free reciprocal membership with fourteen Continental and foreign touring clubs including New South Wales, Australia, Spain, Russia, Sweden, and the U.S.A. Particulars according to locality and the probable needs of customers may be obtained from the following shipping companies, who afford special terms or customs facilities for the carriage of tourists' bicycles.

The General Steam Navigation Co., 15, Trinity Square, London, conveys cycles free of charge and motor-cycles half-price on presentation of the club badge and when accompanied personally by the owner. The

Anglo-French S.S. Co., take one cycle per passenger free of charge between Plymouth, Guernsey, Jersey, and St. Brieuc. The Tedcastle Line (Liverpool) allow a ten per cent. rebate for the Lake round tour and also to Dublin. Brills' Brighton Baths charge half-rate to the plunge and hot baths. This is an idea that might well be followed up by seaside caterers and hotel keepers generally. The Powell Bacon and Hough Line, Liverpool and London, serve Falmouth, Plymouth, Southampton, and Portsmouth at ten per cent. reduction. The Finland Line (through J. Good and Sons, Hull) carry cycles free of cost and serve Copenhagen, Helsingfors, Abo, Hango, and Slite (in Gothland) from the port of Hull. The Batavier (Lower Thames Street, London) carry members' cycles free between Tilbury and Rotterdam. The Royal Mail Steam Packet Co., Ltd., Moorgate Street, London, carry cycles free from Southampton to Spanish ports and motor-cycles at a reduced price of one guinea, while the Pacific Line and the Booth Line (both of Liverpool) offer the same cycle and motor-cycle facilities between Liverpool and La Rochelle, Palice, and Spanish and Portugese ports.

It is obvious that this list affords an excellent selection for caterers and hotel proprietors who desire to foster the interests of customers whether actually on tour or intending to tour.

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